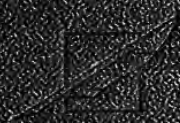


# HANDBOOK of ENGLISH WRITING



SEWARD

# CATCH TITLES OF PROBLEMS ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED

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# HANDBOOK OF ENGLISH WRITING

BY

SAMUEL S. SEWARD, JR.

PROFESSOR OF ENGLISH

STANFORD UNIVERSITY



GINN AND COMPANY

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## Preface

Can a handbook be so designed that it will be equally useful as a reference book and as a text for systematic study? Can it at the same time be adapted to the needs of different types of students, whether their previous training has been good, fair, or even distinctly poor? Can it be made serviceable alike to the teacher directing class work and to the unassisted student directing his own study? These are the problems that this book attempts to meet. The solutions that are offered can best be understood in the light of some general explanation.

*The Significance of Grammar.* What, first, about grammar? There are certain convictions, it seems fair to say, on which thoughtful, experienced teachers are fairly well agreed; and this book is an expression of these convictions.

One conviction is that much of so-called formal grammar is of little or no practical value for the student who is learning how to write. Analytical distinctions of purely logical character and subtle issues in parsing, interesting though they may be to the advanced student of language, need have no place in a handbook that aims primarily to be practical.

Another conviction, however, and one no less strong, is that there are certain grammatical conceptions so important that a student who has a sound mastery of them comes to the practical problems of writing with an inestimable advantage. His occasions for using these conceptions do not end when he has solved his problems of correct usage: he uses the same conceptions constantly

## Preface

in learning how to punctuate; and he finds them useful tools in mastering principles of rhetorical effectiveness.

Now it is common experience that many students go through high school without having laid an adequate grammatical foundation for their later work. Thoughtful teachers seem further agreed that such students can build better by pausing to lay a sound foundation than they can by trying to build on a foundation that is at best a shaky one.

*Separation of Grammatical Issues.* The student of grammar deals with two kinds of material: (1) he learns what grammatical function is and how different kinds of words and word groups may fulfil different functions, and (2) he applies this knowledge to problems of correct and incorrect usage. As here treated, the issues of usage, separated from those of function, are placed in the front of the book as a series of Grammatical Problems. The issues of function are placed later, in a division entitled Grammatical Material. The reason for this separation will appear presently.

*The Grammatical Problems.* The unit of each grammatical problem is not a specific rule, but a general statement of principle, so comprehensive in certain cases as to cover several related issues. The total number of problems has thus been reduced to thirty. To the teacher who is correcting papers, the advantage of this system is that he has a comparatively short list of issues to remember. To the student who attacks a given problem, the advantage is that he can give sustained attention to the principle involved until he has completely mastered it. If any term is not clear, he is referred by section number to a place where it is explained. Then he may note how the principle is applied to this and to that specific issue. Next he may apply the principle constructively to the shaping

## Preface

of correct sentences. Finally he may apply it critically to the task of distinguishing correct from incorrect sentences.

*The Grammatical Material.* The division called Grammatical Material is more than a body of reference material for students not sufficiently equipped to understand the grammatical problems. It is a compact treatise on grammar, designed to meet the needs of those whose training in grammar is negligible. It contains, in addition to a text with illustrative sentences, exercises of three kinds: (1) thought-provoking questions that test the student's understanding of the text, (2) sentence material for practice in analysis, and (3) terms to be illustrated by the student himself. Self-instruction is thus provided for.

*The Use of Faulty Sentences.* The providing of exercises raises inevitably the question, Is it psychologically desirable to put before the student examples of incorrect usage? The undesirability of putting before him incorrect spellings is freely granted, for the eye takes these in at a glance and impresses them upon the memory. The situation is, however, radically different when the point at issue is an entire sentence that is, for some particular reason, faulty. A faulty sentence is not, in the first place, impressed upon the eye, as is a misspelled word. Nor can one, alas, by keeping faulty sentences out of textbooks, keep them out of the experience of the student, who hears and sees them at every turn. What one can hope to do is, by carefully marking faulty examples as such, to establish an alert disposition to recognize, and so to avoid, the pitfalls that beset every writer, no matter how experienced. When such a disposition has been cultivated, furthermore, practice in distinguishing faulty from correct sentences has a very special value. Every teacher and every writer knows how difficult it is, even for one who is on the lookout for errors, to find them in his own writing. A student who is

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trained to read proof, as it were, on the printed page acquires corresponding alertness in searching his own manuscript for errors.

*The Treatment of Punctuation.* Punctuation, like grammar, is treated both in a series of problems and in a division of explanatory material. Either part may be used separately, or the two, by means of reference numbers, may be used in conjunction. The flexibility of the system seems to justify a certain amount of unavoidable repetition.

The method of approaching the issues of punctuation is unusual. The conventionally accepted method is to list under each mark of punctuation all the various uses which that mark may serve. This is unquestionably systematic, but its usefulness to the student may be doubted. The student, as he writes, does not begin with the thought of a particular mark and then go on to consider the various ways in which it may be used: he begins with the particular problem before him and wonders what mark will solve it.

With a view to meeting, then, the successive problems that a student faces in his actual writing, this book departs radically from the accepted method of organizing material. The problems that the student faces — problems of terminating, of separating, of setting off, and so on — are taken up systematically, and the uses of the various marks are explained as solutions of these successive problems. Exercises take the form of questions that test understanding and of sentence material for practice.

*Treatment of Rhetoric.* In this book a sharp distinction is made, it will be seen, between the issues of grammar and those of rhetoric. Such a division seems to have its use in impressing on the student the fact that grammatical issues of right and wrong, as determined by usage, are somewhat different from rhetorical issues of greater or less effectiveness, as determined by general psychological prin-

## Preface

ciples. One must freely admit, however, that although most issues belong clearly to one category or the other, certain others, such as the placing of modifiers, may easily be thought of as straddling a dividing fence. No harm can come, perhaps, of placing these doubtful issues squarely, even if a bit arbitrarily, on one side of the fence or the other.

It will be observed, also, that this book does not follow the practice of putting into a special glossary those words that should be used with caution if they are to be used at all. Such a glossary is useful for reference if the one who is about to use a given word realizes that it presents a problem. But experience shows that the one who most needs to use a glossary is the one who actually uses it the least. The method here used is to group appropriately, in the division entitled *Rhetorical Material*, many of the words with respect to which a writer should be especially on his guard. When the student has systematically gone through the words thus grouped, and has dealt, in the division of *Rhetorical Problems*, with the sentences illustrating them, he will be the more likely to recognize dangerous words when he sees them.

*Miscellaneous Technical Problems.* Many of the decisions that a writer is constantly making have to do with the forms of words—their spelling, capitalization, hyphenation, and so on. Although no small handbook can take the place of the dictionary that should stand on every writing-desk, a handbook can answer a large proportion of these technical questions by explaining such system as may be discerned in wayward usage. This book attempts not only to fulfil such a function, but also to supply reliable guidance in the making of footnotes, the writing of letters, and the construction of outlines. The Index makes all such material accessible for purposes of reference, and a

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series of exercises gives, to the student who has given the matter his systematic attention, opportunities for testing and practicing what he has learned.

*Grammatical Nomenclature.* The grammatical terms made use of in this book are in almost every instance those recommended by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature. In the exceptional instances in which the use of a more familiar term has seemed especially desirable, the term recommended by the Committee is always mentioned as an alternative. A few terms that are not commonly found in grammars, such as *framework* and *sentence element*, may be considered merely convenient descriptions of familiar grammatical conceptions; their justification lies in the fact that they obviate the necessity of repeating clumsy phrases. One new term (though not used for the first time in this book) calls for special mention. When a word like *consequently* or *nevertheless* performs a certain use (see 265), it is referred to as an *adverbial connective*. The Joint Committee has no name for words of this class. The term *conjunctive adverb*, which is sometimes used, seems a bit clumsy, and it has the special disadvantage of being used in some grammars in another sense. It may, of course, be used at will as an alternative.

*The Problem of Standards.* Every writer on English usage is well aware, of course, that certain usages that he may condemn are sometimes found in the writings of reputable authors. He knows, too, that the standards of colloquial speech are not always those of formal writing, and that these latter, indeed, intruded into familiar speech, may sometimes seem unpleasantly pedantic. He may know all this; yet if he is writing a textbook, two principles may legitimately guide his practice.

There is, in the first place, no space in a compact handbook for setting forth the qualifying reservations with



## Preface

which a given statement might fairly be made. Even if there were, there is little doubt that the inexperienced student would find such a discussion confusing rather than helpful. A certain conservatism, then, even with a leaning toward dogmatism, may be, in the circumstances, more than justified.

Then again, the fact that a given usage may be acceptable in colloquial speech does not mean that it is also acceptable in formal writing. The person of cultivation, knowing the usage that is appropriate to each occasion, can feel secure in making his choice; but the less experienced student can gain the same happy freedom only after strict training and careful observation. The textbook should train him to know what the most exacting occasion requires, and observation may then show him how much freedom he may wisely take.

The aim of this book, then, is to set forth the standards that cultivated writers ordinarily use in their own formal writing. In certain issues (notably in the field of punctuation) in which tastes may differ, it seems more helpful to set forth clearly one sound method of procedure than to discuss a number of possible procedures. No matter what the problem, a judiciously liberal instructor, aided, it is hoped, by the temper of this book, has it in his power to steer a wise course between extremes.

*Acknowledgments.* The author gratefully acknowledges the fruitful suggestions that have come, during the preparation of this volume, from Miss Alice E. Cooper, of the Junior College at Modesto, California, and from Professor Arthur G. Kennedy, one of his colleagues at Stanford University. Very sincere, too, is the author's appreciation of the friendly helpfulness that he has constantly been receiving from the offices of his publishers.

S. S. S., JR.



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# HANDBOOK OF ENGLISH WRITING



# Problems of Usage

**GRAMMATICAL PROBLEMS · PUNCTUATION PROBLEMS · RHETORICAL PROBLEMS**

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 1

### Is Nominative Case Required?

**Principle.** The subject of a verb, the predicate word after a linking verb, or a word in apposition with either of these is in the nominative case.

**Material.** For the subject of a verb, see 33. For the predicate nominative, see 44. For agreement of appositives, see 127.

#### Incorrect

##### SUBJECT OF A VERB

There were only *us* boys and the janitor present.

#### Correct

There were only *we* boys and the janitor present.

##### PREDICATE NOMINATIVE

The last ones to arrive were my father and *me*.

The last ones to arrive were my father and *I*.

I should like to be *him* for just one day.

I should like to be *he* for just one day.

##### APPOSITIVE OF A WORD IN THE NOMINATIVE

There were four ushers — Marvin McLeod and *us* three.

There were four ushers — Marvin McLeod and *we* three.

The debaters were all seniors — Willis, Thompson, and *me*.

The debaters were all seniors — Willis, Thompson, and *I*.

**From each pair of words in parentheses choose the correct one.**

1. To everybody's astonishment, two of us reached the finals — Larrie and (*I, me*).
2. Can that cadaverous-looking man really be (*he, him*)?
3. Squeezed in the rumble seat sat (*we, us*) three girls.
4. The only ones not in costume were she and (*I, me*).

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. Harry confessed that the instigators of the plot were Marvin and him.
2. At the end of the next term two more had been elected — Foster and I.
3. The guide and us boys had the camp in order before the others came.
4. The one on horseback may not have been him at all.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 2

### Is Objective Case Required?

**Principle.** The object of a verb or of a preposition, or the subject of, or the predicate word after, an infinitive is in the objective (accusative) case.

**Material.** For the object of a verb, see 40. For the object of a preposition, see 68. For the subject of an infinitive, see 50. For the predicate word after an infinitive, see 51.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### OBJECT OF A VERB

The president put Joan and *I* on the committee.

The president put Joan and *me* on the committee.

##### OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION

We must keep it a secret between you and *I*.

We must keep it a secret between you and *me*.

##### SUBJECT OF AN INFINITIVE

Mother asked Freda and *she* to pour at her tea.

Mother asked Freda and *her* to pour at her tea.

##### PREDICATE WORD AFTER AN INFINITIVE

Mr. Blackburn believes the writer to be *I*.

Mr. Blackburn believes the writer to be *me*.

**From each pair of words in parentheses choose the correct one.**

1. Just between you and (*I, me*), the doctor doesn't understand this case.
2. Did you see Phil and (*he, him*) play their doubles match?
3. If you will put me and (*they, them*) in charge, things will be done right.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. Everybody expected her and me to be sure winners.
2. If everything looks right to him and me, may we go ahead?
3. I could not understand why the judge assumed the driver to have been I.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 3

### Is Possessive Case Required?

**Principle.** The agent of a gerund, when standing immediately before it, is normally a possessive modifier, not a substantive in the objective case.

**Material.** For the gerund as verbal noun, see 223-224. For the possessive modifier of the gerund as its agent, see 233.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### GERUND AS SUBJECT

<i>Him</i> desiring to study in night school astonished us all.	<i>His</i> desiring to study in night school astonished us all.
-----------------------------------------------------------------	-----------------------------------------------------------------

##### GERUND AS OBJECT OF VERB

We appreciated <i>him</i> offering to go for the mail.	We appreciated <i>his</i> offering to go for the mail.
--------------------------------------------------------	--------------------------------------------------------

**Compare:** We heard *him* [object] offering [participle] to go for the mail.

##### GERUND AS OBJECT OF PREPOSITION

None of us had yet heard about <i>him</i> winning the match.	None of us had yet heard about <i>his</i> winning the match.
--------------------------------------------------------------	--------------------------------------------------------------

**From each pair of words in parentheses choose the correct one.**

1. The authorities finally objected to (*Will*, *Will's*) carrying a loaded revolver.
2. (*Ned*, *Ned's*) going so often to her house finally caused general comment.
3. Only two minutes ago I saw (*his*, *him*) going out the front gate.
4. Greasing the contacts of the battery lessens the danger of (*them*, *their*) getting foul.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. The idea of the key being duplicated had never even occurred to us.
2. Old habits in England explained his having left his shoes outside of the door to be cleaned.
3. Here there is no danger of the telephone's ringing for us.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 4

### Is Case in an Elliptical Clause Correct?

**Principle.** The case of a substantive in an elliptical clause is determined by supplying the omitted part of the sentence.

**Material.** For definition of ellipsis, see 104. For ellipsis in comparisons, see 107.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE AS ANSWER

Who do you suppose gets this fat letter? *Me.*

Did you see anybody we know there? Only Max and *he.*

Who do you suppose gets this fat letter? *I.*

Did you see anybody we know there? Only Max and *him.*

##### ELLIPTICAL CLAUSE AFTER *Than* OR *As*

Oh, Lois is much cleverer than *me.*

Miss Hughes is not nearly so good a player as *her.*

Oh, Lois is much cleverer than *I.*

Miss Hughes is not nearly so good a player as *she.*

**From each pair of words in parentheses choose the correct one.**

1. George can mend that leak far better than (*I, me*).
2. Who do you suppose can throw farther, you or (*he, him*)?
3. Have they asked anybody to take the tickets? Yes, you and (*I, me*).
4. Which does he think the taller, (*he, him*) or (*I, me*)?
5. There's nobody he beats at chess more easily than (*I, me*).

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. Did anyone second that motion? *I.*
2. How many did Professor Mallet excuse from the examination? Only George and *he.*
3. In the high diving for points, there's nobody better than *him.*
4. Is there anybody he takes to be a poorer student than Scott?  
*Yes, me.*
5. Did you ever know anybody quicker to take offense than *him?*

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 5

### Is the Case of a Pronoun Obscured by Position?

**Principle.** A pronoun takes the case required by its construction in its own clause. Its position in relation to other words in the sentence should not be allowed to obscure the sense of what that construction is.

**Material.** For the constructions requiring the nominative case or the objective case, see 124 and 125. For the case of a pronoun and its antecedent, see 143. For the case of the compound relative pronoun (*whoever*, etc.), see 163. For inserted clauses that do not affect the construction of pronouns in the main clause, see 168.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### NOMINATIVE AFTER A VERB

Send *whomever* is in the building to me.

Send *whoever* is in the building to me.

We decided to ask *whomever* had played football that year.

We decided to ask *whoever* had played football that year.

##### NOMINATIVE AFTER A PREPOSITION

Give the package to *whom-ever* comes to the door.

Give the package to *whoever* comes to the door.

There was no doubt as to *whom* most deserved it.

There was no doubt as to *who* most deserved it.

##### NOMINATIVE BEFORE AN INSERTED CLAUSE

*Whom* do you think it was?

*Who* do you think it was?

The boy *whom* I supposed was to come for it never arrived.

The boy *who* I supposed was to come for it never arrived.

##### OBJECTIVE AFTER A NOMINATIVE ANTECEDENT

The messenger was not, after all, he *who* we expected to see.

The messenger was not, after all, he *whom* we expected to see.

There is the man *who* I was just talking about.

There is the man *whom* I was just talking about.

##### OBJECTIVE INTRODUCING A SENTENCE

*Who* are we asking?

*Whom* are we asking?

*Who* shall we give it to?

*Whom* shall we give it to?



## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 5 (CONTINUED)

*Who* do you wish to be captain?

*Whoever* we saw we asked.

*Whoever* we spoke to we found willing to sign.

*Whom* do you wish to be captain?

*Whomever* we saw we asked.

*Whomever* we spoke to we found willing to sign.

**In each sentence supply a pronoun in its appropriate case.**

1. We must choose someone ----- we know to be experienced.
2. ----- did the registrar just send for?
3. He said he would receive ----- might call.
4. ----- did you say was coming?
5. ----- she saw walking she invited to ride.
6. In his office he was gruff to ----- accosted him.
7. ----- did you say went?
8. I nominated the man ----- I thought the most popular.
9. Tell ----- is ready that we shall start at once.
10. Pass the tickets on to ----- can best use them.
11. ----- you name I shall gladly invite.
12. Are you the man ----- Mr. Foster recommended?

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. Who did you say saw him?
2. He danced with whomever was without a partner.
3. Whoever he asked he found unwilling.
4. Whom did you say it was for?
5. Who did you tell to go?
6. You may tell the news to whoever is interested.
7. Anyone who you wish to ask is welcome here.
8. Who should you most like to have?
9. Tell whoever calls that I am busy.
10. Who should you say played the more consistent game?
11. Ask whomever it is to send in his name.
12. The man whom I most wanted to see was ill.
13. Send for whoever you think can do it best.
14. Whom do you suppose just called me up?
15. Whom did you expect to see there?
16. Please request whoever telephones to leave his number.
17. Nobody whom I wished to meet was there.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 6

### Is the Reference of a Pronoun Accurate?

**Principle.** The antecedent of a pronoun should normally be an expressed substantive, so prominent in thought and so well placed that the reference of the pronoun is instantly clear. The number and person of both antecedent and pronoun should be the same.

**Material.** For the antecedent of a pronoun, see 139. For the form and position of the antecedent of a pronoun, see 141. For the agreement of a pronoun with its antecedent, see 142-143.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### ANTECEDENT IMPLIED, NOT EXPRESSED

Mother grew orchids with fanatical zest, but I could never interest myself in *that*.

Mother grew orchids with fanatical zest, but I could never interest myself in *that hobby*.

##### ANTECEDENT IMPLIED BY ADJECTIVE

*Book* knowledge is useful in itself, but from *them* we cannot learn everything.

Books give us useful knowledge, but from *them* we cannot learn everything.

After hours of crawling up the *mountain* trail, we began to realize how high *it* was.

After hours of crawling up the mountain trail, we began to realize how high *the summit* was.

##### ANTECEDENT AN ENTIRE CLAUSE

We finally let out all our *anchor chain*, *which* prevented the craft from dragging farther.

We finally let out all our anchor chain — a *maneuver which* prevented the craft from dragging farther.

By this time I was thoroughly frightened, *which* didn't increase my ability to think quickly. [*Exceptional use*]

##### TWO POSSIBLE ANTECEDENTS

The *author* used to live with the old *man* in *his* little cabin.

The *author* used to live in *his* little cabin with the old man.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 6 (CONTINUED)

The author used to live with the old man in *his* (*the old man's*) little cabin.

The author used to share the old *man's* little cabin with *him*.

### ANTECEDENT OF DIFFERENT NUMBER

The neon *tube*, because of its low resistance, does not become heated; therefore *they* are especially useful in refrigerating plants.

The neon *tube*, because of its low resistance, does not become heated; therefore *it* is especially useful in a refrigerating plant.

**How may the faults of reference in these sentences be remedied?**

1. My father is a banker, and I too expect to take it up as my life work.
2. The son could never agree with his father, but he strongly influenced him, nevertheless.
3. Nat and Howard were arguing with amusing vigor about socialism, during which each of them completely reversed his position.
4. His army experiences had been distasteful from the first day that he entered it.
5. I tried to aim my rifle at the deer, but it went off before I had it leveled.
6. Though most people considered him hypocritical, I could not believe that he really was one.
7. Gordon went straight to his brother and told him that he didn't deserve such treatment.
8. A cat is more effective than a mousetrap, but most people do not like to have them about.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. It was a charmingly old-fashioned chair, which was the reason for my being proud of it.
2. Harry tossed the paper on the table where my book was lying, and when I asked him for it, politely suggested that I get it myself.
3. Tire trouble is so vexatious that it is always wise to have two spare ones with you.
4. The old man opened his basket and peered into it — an operation that excited all my mother's curiosity.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 7

### Is the Number of the Pronoun Correct?

**Principle.** If a singular indefinite word, such as *each*, *every*, etc., is an antecedent, any pronoun or possessive adjective that refers to it should be singular also. (If the antecedent is of common gender, a masculine pronoun may be used as a pronoun of common gender.)

**Material.** For the agreement in number between pronoun and antecedent, see 142. For a list of indefinite words that are singular, see 174. For common gender, see 123.

#### **Incorrect**

#### **Correct**

##### PRONOUN IN SAME CLAUSE

*Neither* of the boys had informed *their* parents.

*Neither* of the boys had informed *his* parents.

##### PRONOUN IN FOLLOWING CLAUSE

*No one* of the girls knew when *their* turn would come.

*No one* of the girls knew when *her* turn would come.

##### ANTECEDENTS OF COMMON GENDER

*Everyone* knows that *they* must die.

*Everyone* knows that *he* must die.

If *anyone* wants to bring friends, *they* may.

If *anyone* wants to bring friends, *he* may.

**What changes in number are required in these sentences?**

1. Each of the witnesses took the oath as they were called to the stand.
2. He held that no one should be allowed to drive a car unless they had taken out liability insurance.
3. Anyone who comes late must take their chance of finding a seat.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. Every girl was required to jot down in a book the time she went out and the time she expected to return.
2. I could never understand why everybody likes to carve their names in public places.
3. If any soldier returned after ten o'clock, they were required to report to the Officer of the Day.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 8

### Is the Number of the Verb Correct? (I)

**Principle.** A collective noun or a subject expressed in terms of number takes a singular verb if it emphasizes unity, or a plural verb if it emphasizes plurality.

**Material.** For the agreement in number of a verb and its subject, see 191. For the number of collective nouns, see 136.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### COLLECTIVE NOUNS, SINGULAR

The Dixon *family* *have* decided not to appeal the case.

The varsity *crew* *are* almost certain to win.

The Dixon *family* *has* decided not to appeal the case.

The varsity *crew* *is* almost certain to win.

##### COLLECTIVE NOUNS, PLURAL

The Dixon *family* *fails* to agree on anything.

The varsity *crew* *is* all over-trained.

The Dixon *family* *fail* to agree on anything.

The varsity *crew* *are* all over-trained.

##### EXPRESSIONS OF NUMBER, SINGULAR

*Thirty-nine inches* *are* now the standard width of a single bed.

*Thirty-nine inches* *is* now the standard width of a single bed.

##### EXPRESSIONS OF NUMBER, PLURAL

Already *thirty-nine years* *has* been spent in building the cathedral.

Already *thirty-nine years* *have* been spent in building the cathedral.

From each pair of words in parentheses choose the correct one.

1. It was four o'clock before the team (*was, were*) all fitted.
2. Two thirds of the contestants (*has, have*) been already eliminated.
3. The rest of the book (*consists, consist*) of notes.
4. The freshman nine (*has, have*) not yet been given their suits.

Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?

1. Three pages of Xenophon are too much for one assignment.
2. Two thirds of the cattle are yet unbranded.
3. A number of boys has already signed up for the team.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 9

### Is the Number of the Verb Correct? (II)

**Principle.** Singular indefinite words, such as *each*, *everybody*, *neither*, and singular subjects joined by *or*, *nor*, *but*, imply "one at a time," and therefore take singular verbs; whereas singular subjects joined by *and* form compound subjects that are, normally, plural.

**Material.** For a list of singular indefinite words and for the number of *none*, see 174.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AS SUBJECTS, SINGULAR

Here *everybody take* care of *their own horses*.

Here *everybody takes* care of *his own horse*.

*Neither* of the boys *were* willing to wear gloves.

*Neither* of the boys *was* willing to wear gloves.

*Nobody want* *their* breakfast before eight o'clock.

*Nobody wants* *his* breakfast before eight o'clock.

*None* [not one] of his fish *was* more than six inches long.

*None* [not any] of his fish *were* more than six inches long.

##### ALTERNATIVE SUBJECTS, SINGULAR

The *doorbell* or the *telephone* always *make* her jump.

The *doorbell* or the *telephone* always *makes* her jump.

John's *speedboat*, but not his *yawl*, *excite* my envy.

John's *speedboat*, but not his *yawl*, *excites* my envy.

Neither the *cat* nor the *dog* *are* ever allowed in the kitchen.

Neither the *cat* nor the *dog* *is* ever allowed in the kitchen.

##### COMPOUND SUBJECTS, NORMALLY PLURAL

The *garage* and the *woodshed* *has* been attacked by termites.

The *garage* and the *woodshed* *have* been attacked by termites.

Her *suitcase* and her *hatbox* *is* still unpacked.

Her *suitcase* and her *hatbox* *are* still unpacked.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 9 (CONTINUED)

### COMPOUND SUBJECTS, SINGULAR BY EXCEPTION

Every *part* and *parcel* of old Scrimshaw's property *are* heavily mortgaged.

The *gentleman* and the *scholar* *show* in everything that he does.

Every *part* and *parcel* of old Scrimshaw's property *is* heavily mortgaged.

The *gentleman* and the *scholar* *shows* in everything that he does.

From each pair of words in parentheses choose the correct one, unless either one may be correct.

1. Either the cook or the gardener (*was, were*) always complaining of poor Towser.
2. Every nook and cranny (*was, were*) carefully searched.
3. Anybody who expects his meals to be on time (*is, are*) sure to be disappointed.
4. None of Jack's projects (*has, have*) turned out successfully.
5. A tall hat and a pair of suède gloves (*complete, completes*) his costume.
6. The trouble was that neither (*was, were*) willing to give up to the other.
7. His bread and butter (*depends, depend*) on his keeping his position.
8. A small house or an apartment (*was, were*) all that he could afford at the time.

Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?

1. What can we do, when everybody want to have their own way?
2. Rip's dog and his gun was all he took with him to the mountains.
3. Ham and eggs makes a good enough breakfast for anybody.
4. Neither his father nor his mother see anything of him any more.
5. Every stock and bond that he owns has to be sold at whatever price it will fetch.
6. Such a friend and counselor as Mrs. Mann are not to be found every day.
7. It turns out that neither of the oars has been lost after all.
8. Neither the Senate nor the House have power to make a law without the approval of the other.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 10

### Is the Number of the Verb Correct? (III)

**Principle.** The number of the grammatical subject should not be obscured (1) by words of different number standing between subject and verb, (2) by parenthetical additions introduced by *as well as*, *accompanied by*, etc., standing between subject and verb, (3) by the expletive *there* standing before the verb, (4) by a predicate nominative of different number standing after the verb, or (5) by the word *one* in such expressions as *one of those men who*.

**Material.** For the use of *there* as an expletive, see 56. For the relation of subject and predicate nominative, see 44. For the number of the relative pronoun in expressions like *one of those men who*, see 142.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### AFTER WORDS STANDING BETWEEN SUBJECT AND VERB

A great *influx* of tourists and other visitors *are* to be expected.

Several *cargoes* of the best quality of winter wheat *has* been ordered from Russia.

A great *influx* of tourists and other visitors *is* to be expected.

Several *cargoes* of the best quality of winter wheat *have* been ordered from Russia.

##### AFTER PARENTHETICAL ADDITIONS

The *sheriff*, together with eight of his posse, *are* hot on the trail.

The whole *division*, including an airplane unit and two squadrons of cavalry, *have* been ordered out.

The *sheriff*, together with eight of his posse, *is* hot on the trail.

The whole *division*, including an airplane unit and two squadrons of cavalry, *has* been ordered out.

##### AFTER EXPLETIVE *There*

There *is* a great many fish running at this season.

There *are* a great many fish running at this season.



## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 10 (CONTINUED)

### BEFORE PREDICATE NOMINATIVE OF DIFFERENT NUMBER

The worst *feature* of this place *are* the mosquitoes.

The mosquitoes *is* the worst feature of this place.

The worst *feature* of this place *is* the mosquitoes.

The mosquitoes *are* the worst feature of this place.

### AFTER *One of those*, ETC.

He bought one of those toy *airplanes* that *sells* for a nickel apiece.

He bought one of those toy *airplanes* that *sell* for a nickel apiece.

**From each pair of words in parentheses choose the correct one.**

1. Money and position (*is, are*) a poor compensation for the loss of self-respect.
2. The principal, no less than the members of the team, (*was, were*) elated over the victory.
3. I knew that there (*was, were*) in the car a heavy rug and two overcoats to keep us warm.
4. If you meet one of those guides who (*offers, offer*) to show you the sights, avoid him.
5. In the early morning hours a long stream of market vans, some of them with trailers, (*blocks, block*) the traffic.
6. Ralph kept insisting that there (*was, were*) too many men in the elevator.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. My mother, as well as both her sisters, was conspicuous for her light hair.
2. The long procession of veterans carrying old battle flags was very touching.
3. Eating and sleeping seems to be his sole occupation these days.
4. I don't know where there's more inveterate gossips than in that little village.
5. If you meet one of those old gypsy women who tell fortunes, let me know.
6. A pile of old books, newspapers, and magazines stands behind the door.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 11

### Is the Past Tense Correctly Chosen?

**Principle.** The tense form of the verb should show whether the action (1) took place in indefinite past time (*past tense*), (2) was completed at the time of speaking (*present perfect tense*), or (3) was completed at some point in past time (*past perfect tense*).

**Material.** For the distinction between past, present perfect, and past perfect tenses, see 196 and 197.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### ACTION IN INDEFINITE PAST TIME

I *have put* in my application yesterday.

I *put* in my application yesterday.

##### ACTION COMPLETED AT TIME OF SPEAKING

I *lived* in this house all my life.

I *have lived* in this house all my life.

*Did* you *live* in this house all your life?

*Have* you *lived* in this house all your life?

##### ACTION COMPLETED AT POINT IN PAST TIME

She wrote that she *met* him only once.

She wrote that she *had met* him only once.

Before I was aware of it, he *left* the room.

Before I was aware of it, he *had left* the room.

**How may the faults of tense in these sentences be remedied?**

1. By the time the reinforcements arrived, the colonel surrendered the fort.
2. Where have you captured the flying fish you were just talking about?
3. You see, I didn't live here always.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. Do you realize that it was just a month ago today that we have come to this place?
2. The captain himself had never seen a larger waterspout in all his experience.
3. During this last half-hour he sat there without moving.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 12

### Is the Tense in Indirect Discourse Correct?

**Principle.** In indirect discourse, the use of a past tense in the verb of *saying, thinking*, etc., affects the tense of the following verb: a present tense of direct discourse becomes past, and a past tense becomes past perfect. Under the same circumstances the form of the modal auxiliary is similarly changed — *shall* to *should*, *may* to *might*, etc.

**Material.** For indirect discourse (including indirect questions), see 76. For the past forms of modal auxiliaries, see 190.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

#### WHEN DIRECT DISCOURSE WOULD BE IN PRESENT TENSE

"I am a stranger here myself."

He told me that he *is* a stranger here himself.      He told me that he *was* a stranger here himself.

"You may expect me at four o'clock."

He telephoned that we *may* expect him at four o'clock.      He telephoned that we *might* expect him at four o'clock.

#### WHEN DIRECT DISCOURSE WOULD BE IN PAST TENSE

"Mother missed her train."

We didn't know that Mother *missed* her train.      We didn't know that Mother *had missed* her train.

If in these sentences direct discourse were to be changed to indirect, what changes of tense would be required?

1. My neighbor explained, "The man is pitching his first game."
2. Napoleon replied, "I cannot afford to waste any more time in waiting."
3. My wife declared from the first, "Webber will take the lead in the last lap."

Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?

1. He asked the major whether he was wounded during the war.
2. Aunt Beatrice admitted to me that she had been engaged more than once.
3. We tried in vain to find out whether the coach assigned a part to Madge.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 13

### Is the Tense of the Verbal Correct?

**Principle.** A verbal in the present tense implies action taking place at the time indicated by the principal verb, whether that time be present, past, or future; whereas a verbal in the past tense implies action earlier than that of the principal verb.

**Material.** For the use of verbals in verbal phrases, see 228-230. For the forms of verbals, see 219.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### TENSE OF THE PARTICIPLE AND GERUND

	In <i>singing</i> that song, she <i>flats</i> badly.
<i>Having sung</i> the same song last night, she <i>flatted</i> in the same place.	In <i>singing</i> the same song last night, she <i>flatted</i> in the same place.

##### TENSE OF THE INFINITIVE

I expected <i>to have met</i> him when he was in town last week.	I expected <i>to meet</i> him when he was in town last week.
We hoped <i>to hear</i> from him before we ourselves had to break up camp.	We hoped <i>to have heard</i> from him before we ourselves had to break up camp.

**In each of these sentences, what justifies the tense of the verbal?**

1. By driving slowly in the very middle of the road, he effectually prevented us from passing him.
2. Arthur expected to have returned the book before I should miss it.
3. Every evening she sat close to the fire, incessantly knitting.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. I hoped to have met him on his way to church, but I must have missed him.
2. Having explored London rather thoroughly, we next turned our steps to the Continent.
3. I expected to have written all ten of my chapters before leaving for home.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 14

### Does *Shall* (*Should*) or *Will* (*Would*) Express Futurity? (I)

**Principle.** For expressing futurity in the main clause of a declarative sentence, use *shall* (*should*) in the first person and *will* (*would*) in the second or in the third person; when used otherwise, any one of these words is a modal auxiliary.

**Material.** For the declarative sentence, see 109. For the meaning of futurity, see 198. For the modal uses of *shall* and *will*, *should* and *would*, see 203–204. For the auxiliaries used with *like to*, *glad*, etc., see 205.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### FUTURITY IN THE FIRST PERSON

I *will* be twenty-one years old in October.

I *would* like to spend a whole month here.

I *shall* be twenty-one years old in October.

I *should* like to spend a whole month here.

##### FUTURITY IN THE SECOND AND THIRD PERSONS

He *shall* be late if he doesn't hurry.

You *should* be bored to death in a place like that.

He *will* be late if he doesn't hurry.

You *would* be bored to death in a place like that.

**From each pair of words in parentheses choose the one that expresses futurity.**

1. We (*will*, *shall*) meet you at the ferry in time for the six-o'clock boat.
2. I (*shall*, *will*) not be able to answer definitely until next week.
3. We (*would*, *should*) be glad to join you next year if the invitation remains open.

**Which sentences correctly express futurity? Which do not?**

1. Under these conditions the gas will liquefy as soon as it is subjected to pressure.
2. After five years of service abroad I will be able to return for a year on full pay.
3. We shall be only too happy to kill the fatted calf as soon as we hear that you are coming.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 15

### Does *Shall* (*Should*) or *Will* (*Would*) Express Futurity? (II)

**Principle.** For expressing futurity in direct questions, use *shall* (*should*) in the first person, and in the second or in the third person use the auxiliary expected in the answer; when used otherwise, the auxiliary has modal significance.

**Material.** For the material, see the references under Grammatical Problem 14.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### FUTURITY IN THE FIRST PERSON

*Will* I see you at the concert tonight?

*Shall* I see you at the concert tonight?

When *will* we have the next rehearsal?

When *shall* we have the next rehearsal?

##### FUTURITY IN THE SECOND AND THIRD PERSONS

*Will* you be at the concert tonight?

*Shall* you be at the concert tonight? [Yes, I *shall*.]

When *would* you like to come?

When *should* you like to come? [I *should* like to come today.]

Whom *should* he be likely to meet there?

Whom *would* he be likely to meet there? [He *would* be likely to meet the Smiths.]

**From each pair of words in parentheses choose the one that expresses futurity.**

1. (*Should*, *would*) you be angry if I were to refuse?
2. Where (*should*, *would*) he be most likely to be found of an evening?
3. (*Shall*, *will*) we have a full moon during Christmas week this year?

**Which sentences correctly express futurity? Which do not?**

1. Should you think that we could limit our expenses to ten dollars a day?
2. Will I have time to take a swim before breakfast?
3. To what kind of hotel would he be likely to go?

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 16

### Does *Shall* (*Should*) or *Will* (*Would*) Express Futurity? (III)

**Principle.** For expressing futurity in indirect discourse, use the auxiliary that would be used in direct discourse, in the tense form that is required by the verb of the main clause. (For exceptions, see 206, near the end.)

**Material.** For indirect discourse, see 76. For the auxiliaries required by direct discourse, see Grammatical Problem 14. For the tense of verbs in indirect discourse, see Grammatical Problem 12.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### DIRECT DISCOURSE IN FIRST PERSON

He telephoned me that he  
*would* leave tomorrow.

Have you told Ned that you  
*should* leave tomorrow?

He telephoned me that he  
*should* leave tomorrow.

##### DIRECT DISCOURSE IN SECOND PERSON

Didn't I say that you *should*  
see me there?

Didn't I say that you *would*  
see me there?

##### DIRECT DISCOURSE IN THIRD PERSON

Nat told me that you *should*  
be twenty-one tomorrow.

Nat told me that you *would*  
be twenty-one tomorrow.

If in these sentences direct discourse were to be changed to indirect, what auxiliaries would be required?

1. We must hurry, for Mr. Terry telegraphed, "I shall come on the four-o'clock train."
2. Louis said to me, "The train will be late," but it wasn't.
3. Mildred wired, "I shall take the last ferry home tonight."

Which sentences correctly express futurity? Which do not?

1. Why didn't you say plainly that you wouldn't be able to visit us?
2. We made Father promise us that he would be home for Thanksgiving.
3. When did he say that I wouldn't be old enough to vote next November?

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 17

### Does *Shall* (*Should*) or *Will* (*Would*) Have Modal Use?

**Principle.** To express determination, willingness, etc., by means of *shall* (*should*) or *will* (*would*), use the auxiliary that is not appropriate for the expression of futurity.

**Material.** For the meanings implied by *shall* (*should*) or *will* (*would*) when used as modal auxiliaries, see 199. For the rules for expressing futurity, see Grammatical Problems 14, 15, and 16.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### TO EXPRESS DETERMINATION

I <i>shall</i> succeed in this.	I <i>will</i> succeed in this.
You <i>will</i> not abuse that horse.	You <i>shall</i> not abuse that horse.
I vowed that he <i>would</i> pay for that insult.	I vowed that he <i>should</i> pay for that insult. ["He <i>shall</i> pay."]

##### TO EXPRESS WILLINGNESS, PROMISE, ETC.

I <i>shall</i> let you have one more chance.	I <i>will</i> let you have one more chance.
He promised me that he <i>should</i> not be long.	He promised me that he <i>would</i> not be long. ["I <i>will</i> not be long."]

From each pair of words in parentheses choose the one that expresses determination or willingness.

1. I tell you that you (*shall*, *will*) not camp on this property.
2. I (*shall*, *will*) make an exception this time, but never again (*shall*, *will*) you use my boat.
3. I (*shall*, *will*) not lend my name to any such enterprise.
4. The Stetsons said that they (*should*, *would*) gladly bear half the expense.

Which sentences correctly express determination or willingness? Which do not?

1. Shall he report them to the police?
2. Finally I had to tell him that he should not threaten me with impunity.
3. The lawyer promised her that she would not be called as a witness.



## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 18

### Are *Lie* and *Lay*, etc., Distinguished?

**Principle.** If the verb is complete (never requiring an object), use *lie*, *sit*, or *rise* (unless idiom justifies *set* for *sit*); if the verb is transitive (requiring an object if it is in the active voice), use *lay*, *set*, or *raise*.

**Material.** For the distinction between complete and transitive verbs, see 35-39. For the forms and meanings of *lie* and *lay*, *sit* and *set*, *rise* and *raise*, see 187.

#### Incorrect

#### *Lie* AND *Lay*

#### Correct

I like to *lay* in the sun.

I like to *lie* in the sun.

He had *laid* there all day.

He had *lain* there all day.

Where have you *lain* it?

Where have you *laid* it?

#### *Sit* AND *Set*

*Set* down here awhile.

*Sit* down here awhile.

We *set* there for two hours.

We *sat* there for two hours.

#### *Rise* AND *Raise*

The cow *raised* up in fright.

The cow *rose* up in fright.

**From each pair of words in parentheses choose the correct one.**

1. Pat (*sat*, *set*) the candle in a basin and (*lay*, *laid*) down to sleep.
2. We had hardly (*lain*, *laid*) there ten minutes before a light rain set in.
3. He hasn't (*risen*, *raised*) up during all the time I've (*sat*, *set*) here.
4. He would often (*sit*, *set*) there for hours without raising his eyes from his book.

**Which verb forms are correct? Which need correction?**

1. Can you set a hen if she doesn't want to set?
2. The thermometer has raised five degrees while we have been sitting here.
3. Before setting out, have your plans thoroughly laid.
4. After you've lain the table, sit here and talk to me.
5. The tide has raised two feet while we've been setting here.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 19

### Does an Elliptical Clause Dangle?

**Principle.** The subject and verb (or its auxiliary) in a subordinate clause should not be omitted unless that subject is the same as the subject of the principal clause. (Ellipsis reducing a clause to an illogically related prepositional phrase should likewise be avoided.)

**Material.** For principal and subordinate clauses, see 82-83. For the prepositional phrase, see 68. For ellipsis, see 104. For the dangling elliptical clause, see 105.

#### Incorrect

##### INTRODUCTORY TIME CLAUSE

*When still in high school, the editor of our town daily offered me a job on his paper. [Subject and verb omitted]*

*While looking out of the window, the old gypsy cart jogged by again. [Subject and auxiliary omitted]*

*When four years old, both my father and my mother died.*

#### Correct

*When still in high school, I was offered by the editor of our town daily a job on his paper.*

*When I was still in high school, the editor of our town daily offered me a job on his paper.*

*While looking out of the window, I saw the old gypsy cart jog by again.*

*While I was looking out of the window, the old gypsy cart jogged by again.*

*When four years old, I lost both my father and my mother.*

*When I was four years old, both my father and my mother died.*

##### INTRODUCTORY PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

*At the age of four, both my father and my mother died.*

*At the age of four, I lost both my father and my mother.*

*When I was four years old, both my father and my mother died.*

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 19 (CONTINUED)

### FINAL TIME CLAUSE

The shipwreck occurred *while*      *He* was shipwrecked *while* on  
on his way home from Australia.      his way home from Australia.

The shipwreck occurred *while*  
he was on his way home from  
Australia.

**Correct each of these sentences in two ways: (1) by completing the elliptical clause, and (2) by changing the principal clause.**

1. The next morning, while still in bed, a violent storm brought the tent down about our heads.
2. When weary from a hard day's work, nothing is so restful as a good game of bridge.
3. He never handed in a paper until carefully corrected.
4. When on tour, it was always his practice to eat very lightly.
5. Although old residents of the city, this curious old quarter was altogether unfamiliar.
6. The radio operator sent us the message while playing quoits on the hurricane deck.
7. When asking for such a job, it's always desirable to wear your oldest clothes.
8. Don't trust it to the mail unless insured.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. A plan of action was hastily sketched out while dressing for dinner.
2. When only nineteen, Walter's father gave him complete charge of the repair shop.
3. The very next morning, while on his way to the bank, he was held up and robbed of the precious black satchel.
4. His wife, while waiting to hear the details, was nearly frantic.
5. While on this job, I found that my boss became more and more overbearing.
6. Although somewhat prepared for such an emergency, the suddenness of the crash was dumbfounding.
7. At the age of sixteen all my entrance examinations for college had been passed.
8. The chauffeur died while in the ambulance on his way to the hospital.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 20

### Does a Verbal Phrase Dangle?

**Principle.** A sentence containing a verbal phrase should contain also the agent of the verbal, so placed that the relation between the two is instantly clear: (1) if the verbal phrase introduces the sentence, the agent should be the subject of the clause that immediately follows; (2) if the verbal phrase follows its clause, the agent should be the most prominent substantive immediately preceding the phrase.

**Material.** For verbal phrases, see 226-230. For the agent of a verbal outside of the verbal phrase, see 234. For verbal phrases purely general in meaning, and therefore treated as exceptions, see 235.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### DANGLING PARTICIPIAL PHRASE AT BEGINNING

*Having graduated with honors,*  
we gave Paul a set of drawing  
instruments as a graduation  
present.

*Having graduated with honors,*  
*Paul* was given a set of draw-  
ing instruments as a graduation  
present.

*Emerging from our hiding*  
*place,* no sound either of men  
or of dogs was to be heard.

*Emerging from our hiding*  
*place, we* heard no sound either  
of men or of dogs.

##### DANGLING GERUND PHRASE AT BEGINNING

*After asking him a few*  
*pointed questions,* he broke  
down and confessed.

*After asking him a few pointed*  
*questions, we* got from him a full  
confession.

##### DANGLING INFINITIVE PHRASE AT BEGINNING

*To reach the summit by noon,*  
an early start seemed advisable.

*To reach the summit by noon,*  
*we* decided to make an early  
start.

*Since we wished to reach the*  
*summit by noon,* an early start  
seemed advisable.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 20 (CONTINUED)

### DANGLING PARTICIPIAL PHRASE AT END

There we had to wait fully three hours, *caused* by a burnt-out bearing.

Luckily the first half ended at that moment, thus *giving* our team the opportunity for a much-needed rest.

There we had a *delay* of fully three hours, *caused* by a burnt-out bearing.

Luckily the *end of the first half* had come, *giving* our team the opportunity for a much-needed rest.

### GENERAL PHRASES TREATED AS EXCEPTIONS

*In diving*, the knees should not be bent.

*To make a long story short*, the boat capsized.

Correct each of these sentences in two ways: (1) by changing the phrase to a clause, and (2) by changing the principal clause.

1. To get some moving pictures of the children, a neighbor's camera was borrowed.
2. Standing on the ledge of rock, the lake was plainly visible.
3. In tying a horse, he should not be given enough rope to step over.
4. To reach the patient in time, speed limits were freely disregarded.
5. Upon opening the door and peering out, a dark figure was seen disappearing down the street.

Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?

1. Turning home at last, it was decided that the party should stick together.
2. After singing a few more college songs, the boys fell to chatting in groups.
3. In making your index, the page numbers should be carefully verified.
4. Stooping quickly to the ground, as if to dust his shoes, he picked a small object off the ground.
5. Just at that moment we heard above us a soft thud, followed by a succession of stifled moans.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 21

### Is Comparison of Adjectives Correct?

**Principle.** Comparison presupposes (1) items of the same general nature and (2) a modifier expressing relative, not absolute, value. A correctly expressed comparison requires (1) a complete and (2) a logically accurate statement.

**Material.** For comparison of adjectives, see 239. For forms of comparison, see 240-242. For good use in comparison, see 243-247.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### ITEMS OF THE SAME GENERAL NATURE

The *length* of the Amazon is greater than any other *river* in the world.

His *prices* were always distinctly lower than other *contractors*.

The *length* of the Amazon is greater than *that* of any other river in the world.

His *prices* were always distinctly lower than *those* of other contractors.

##### MODIFIERS EXPRESSING RELATIVE VALUE

He felt sure that a second ballot would give him a *more unanimous* vote.

This camping spot is *more unique* than any that we have ever found.

He felt sure that a second ballot would give him a *more nearly unanimous* vote.

This camping spot is *unique* among all that we have ever found.

##### COMPLETE COMPARISON

On all occasions Judge Pringle wore *soft collars* because they were *more comfortable*.

On all occasions Judge Pringle wore *soft collars* because they were *more comfortable* than *stiff ones*.

On all occasions Judge Pringle wore *soft collars* because they were *especially comfortable*.

##### LOGICAL USE OF COMPARATIVE DEGREE

That birch is now *taller* than *any tree* on the estate.

That birch is now *taller* than *any other tree* on the estate.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 21 (CONTINUED)

### LOGICAL USE OF SUPERLATIVE DEGREE

That birch is now the *tallest*  
of *any tree* on the estate.

That birch is now the *tallest*  
of *all the trees* on the estate.

### COMPARATIVE VERSUS SUPERLATIVE DEGREE

Bob was my favorite of the  
twins, for he was much *the*  
*cleverest*.

Bob was my favorite of the  
twins, for he was much *the*  
*cleverer*.

**By what changes may the faults of comparison in these sentences be corrected?**

1. The circulation of the *Express* is now greater than any other daily in the city.
2. He wielded a power more absolute than that of any previous ruler.
3. Merriman had by far the highest grades of any man in his fraternity.
4. We looked forward to our week-ends in the hills, for the nights were cooler there.
5. The Red Sox won easily, for they were noticeably quickest in stealing bases.
6. On the whole, Ruskin's sentences are longer than any other writer studied this fall.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. Jessie, his particular chum, was the youngest of all his cousins.
2. Mother found the quiet of the mountains more absolute than that of any other place.
3. One reason for the success of these brakes is that their action is perceptibly quicker.
4. The tone of this last letter was sharper than that of any he had written before.
5. Mr. Holmes had the reputation of being the most severe marker of any of the instructors in French.
6. Of the two evils he chose what seemed to him the least.
7. He always insisted that racing with sailboats was more thrilling than any other sport.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 22

### Is It a Correct Adverbial Form?

**Principle.** When an adverb is called for in a sentence, use a form that is in good use, and use it in a way prescribed by good use.

**Material.** For the function of adverbs, see 22. For adverbial forms distinguished by *ly*, see 258. For forms in *ly* that are not adverbs, see 259. For adjectives and adverbs alike in form, see 260. For *illy*, *overly*, and *thusly*, see 338. For adverbs used under special conditions, see 263.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### ADVERBIAL FORM DISTINGUISHED BY *ly*

Even here we didn't know whether we were *real* safe.

By following these directions we can do it *easy*.

It was *sure* astonishing how *quick* the detectives caught them.

Even here we didn't know whether we were *really* safe.

By following these directions we can do it *easily*.

It was *surely* astonishing how *quickly* the detectives caught them.

##### FORMS IN *ly* THAT ARE NOT ADVERBS

Our team reported that their hosts had all treated them *princely*.

Mrs. Shortall, our hospitable hostess, treated us *lovely*.

Our team reported that their hosts had all treated them *like princes*.

Mrs. Shortall, our hostess, treated us *with lovely hospitality*.

##### ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS ALIKE IN FORM

He wasn't *hard* enough to hit the line *hard*, and though a *fast* runner, he couldn't run *fast* in that game.

##### FORMS IN *ly* NOT IN GOOD USE

Being *overly* anxious, he failed to do justice to himself.

The rope should be thrown with a twisting motion, *thusly*.

Being *overanxious*, he failed to do justice to himself.

The rope should be thrown with a twisting motion, *thus*.



## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 22 (CONTINUED)

### ADVERBS USED UNDER SPECIAL CONDITIONS

Poor Watson was *some* exhausted after the fifth lap, and staggered in *most* dead.

You will *likely* meet him on your way home.

I, for one, was *very* relieved when the time for parting came.

Poor Watson was *very much* exhausted after the fifth lap, and staggered in *almost* dead.

You will be *likely* [adj.] to meet him on your way home.

You will, *most likely*, meet him on your way to the station.

I, for one, was *very much* relieved when the time for parting came.

From each of the words in parentheses choose the correct one.

1. After that wrong start, everything seemed to go (*wrong, wrongly*).
2. You will (*likely, very likely*) be (*some, somewhat*) confused at first.
3. The transmission won't work (*easy, easily*) unless it is well lubricated.
4. The poor fellow was (*most, almost*) asleep when we came, but he pretended that he was really (*very, very much*) delighted to see us.
5. We all felt (*very, very much*) honored, and we thanked her (*grateful, gratefully*).
6. The car won't run so (*good, well*) if you drive it too (*fast, fastly*) at first.

Which words used as adverbs are correct? Which need correction?

1. Though I had bought the piano cheap, the first payment almost broke me.
2. He will likely treat you most princely at first.
3. Ashworth was really too much exhausted to want to stay late.
4. The trail is surely obscure, and you'll likely lose yourself if you're not some careful.
5. We were very much surprised to find ourselves treated in so princely a manner.
6. You won't be likely to do so well if you're overly hurried.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 23

### Should Adjective or Adverb Follow the Verb?

**Principle.** The modifier of a complete verb or of a transitive verb should be an adverb; the predicate word after a linking verb should be (if not a substantive) an adjective modifying the subject, unless special circumstances make *well* or *badly* appropriate.

**Material.** For complete and transitive verbs, see 36 and 38. For the adverb as a modifier of the verb, see 22. For the linking verb and its predicate adjective, see 44. For the exceptional use of *well* or *badly* after a linking verb, see 47. For modifiers differently interpreted, see 48.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### ADVERBS AFTER COMPLETE VERBS

He looked *stern* all about him.

He looked *sternly* all about him.

The team hasn't been playing *good* for the last few days.

The team hasn't been playing *well* for the last few days.

##### ADVERBS AFTER TRANSITIVE VERBS

Consider the matter *careful* before you decide.

Consider the matter *carefully* before you decide.

He had used the car *considerable* before I bought it.

He had used the car *considerably* before I bought it.

##### ADJECTIVES AFTER LINKING VERBS

Does anything else smell so *strongly* as an old Limburger cheese?

Does anything else smell so *strong* as an old Limburger cheese?

Never before had we seen the principal appear so *sternly*.

Never before had we seen the principal appear so *stern*.

##### NORMAL USE OF *Good, Well, Bad, Ill*

She may have been *ill*, but she certainly looked *well*.

She looked too *good* for earth.

The prisoner had a *bad* record but he didn't look *bad*.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 23 (CONTINUED)

### EXCEPTIONAL USE OF *Well* or *Badly*

A girl of her type doesn't look *good* in a ball dress.

Sports clothes, however, always look *good* on her.

A girl of her type doesn't look *well* in a ball dress.

Sports clothes, however, always look *well* on her.

### MODIFIERS DIFFERENTLY INTERPRETED

The flames flared *brightly* over the onlookers.

The flames flared *bright* over the onlookers.

He clasped the child *safely* in his arms.

He clasped the child *safe* in his arms.

In each sentence supply the correct word suggested by the word in italics.

1. He kept looking about so ----- that he made me *suspicious*.
2. If you don't feel *brisk*, why should you try to act -----?
3. Sally buys *good* clothes, but nothing seems to look ----- on her.
4. Act ----- if you wish to seem *thoughtful*.
5. Naturally I feel *bad*, for didn't he treat me -----?
6. The policeman looked so ----- at me that he made me feel *queer*.
7. Though he appears -----, he doesn't work *alertly*.

Which sentences are correct as they stand? Which are correct or incorrect according to their interpretation? Which need correction?

1. In that small room the music sounded too loud.
2. Yet we couldn't hear the music good from outside the room.
3. No forecasts proved so uniformly accurate as his.
4. Harry appears so well, you'd think he was good.
5. The fumes smelled so disagreeably that we could not stay.
6. Holding the child safe in his arms, he laid it at last safe on the ground.
7. Although the tower has always looked unstable, it is still standing firm today.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 24

### Are Negatives Incorrectly Doubled?

**Principle.** Double negatives should not be used in the expression of a negative idea.

**Material.** For the right and wrong use of the double negative, see 264. For the use of *or* and *nor*, see 275.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

#### OBVIOUS NEGATIVES

I *don't* hear *nothing*.

I hear *nothing*.

I *don't* hear anything.

It will *not* rain, I *don't* think.

It will *not* rain, I think.

I do *not* think it will rain.

#### WORDS OF NEGATIVE FORCE

Mr. Dunn *couldn't* *hardly* believe it.

Mr. Dunn could *hardly* believe it.

Father *couldn't* *help* *but* smile.

Father *couldn't* *help* smiling.

[Affirmative]

#### *Nor* INSTEAD OF *Or*

He could never learn to do the crawl *nor* even the scissors kick.

He could never learn to do the crawl *or* even the scissors kick.

He could learn to do *neither* the crawl *nor* the scissors kick.

**Correct these sentences by eliminating or changing words of negative force.**

1. We were all unwilling to spend the night there *nor* even to stop for dinner.
2. After the first of June there's never any rain here scarcely.
3. There's hardly a chance of that stock's going higher, I *don't* think.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. We hadn't only just got home when the telephone bell began to ring.
2. He was foolhardy; yet we could not help but admire him.
3. That the boat may be late is not, of course, impossible.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 25

### Are Sentence Elements Related?

**Principle.** A sentence element having no grammatical use to perform either should be omitted or should be related to the rest of the sentence.

**Material.** For sentence element, see 85-88.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### SUPERFLUOUS SUBSTANTIVE

In the audience he saw several musicians *whom* he had seen but never met *them*.

In the audience he saw several musicians *whom* he had seen but never met.

##### SUPERFLUOUS VERB

There *was* one thing that always caused him embarrassment *was* the size of his hands.

The one thing that always caused him embarrassment *was* the size of his hands.

##### SUPERFLUOUS PREPOSITION

Our new house had a commodious storeroom *in* which we could put trunks and unused furniture *in*.

Our new house had a commodious storeroom *in* which we could put trunks and unused furniture.

##### UNRELATED WORD GROUPS

*My duties as manager for the track team*, I neglected to keep up my work in German.

*My duties as manager for the track team* made me neglect my work in German.

Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?

1. He is the one author whom, strange as it may seem, Father seems to prefer him to all others.
2. The man who was the hero of this story which I am about to tell, he had been in his youth a circus acrobat.
3. To anyone who knew the town when it was small, the growth of recent years must seem phenomenal.
4. The thrill of reading detective stories, Asa used to neglect his studies shamelessly for them.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 26

### Is It a Substantive Clause or Phrase?

**Principle.** The subject of a linking verb or the predicate nominative following such a verb may be a substantive clause or phrase, but it may not be a principal clause or an adverbial clause.

**Material.** For the substantive clause, see 71. For the principal clause, see 82. For the adverbial clause, see 79.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### PRINCIPAL CLAUSE SUBSTITUTED

One reason for the lobbyists' power is *they are well organized*.

One reason for the lobbyists' power is *that they are well organized*.

##### ADVERBIAL CLAUSE SUBSTITUTED

Gerrymandering is *when they divide unfairly the political map of a state*.

Gerrymandering is *dividing unfairly the political map of a state*.

**Which sentences contain incorrect principal clauses? Which contain incorrect adverbial clauses?**

1. Being "in stays" is when a sailboat headed directly into the wind has lost her headway.
2. Sloggett had not completely recovered from the influenza was distinctly a handicap for our team.
3. A "let" is when a served ball touches the net before falling into the service court.
4. The clock kept striking all through the night was why I could not sleep.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. The only excuse he could offer was he had been in a hurry.
2. The mere fact that a new model had appeared did not seem to Father a good reason for getting a new car.
3. Anacrusis is when an extrametrical light syllable is added at the beginning of a line of verse.
4. When a player is illegally between the football and the opponent's goal, he is "off side."

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 27

### Are Elements after Correlatives Parallel?

**Principle.** Correlative conjunctions should be followed by coördinate sentence elements that are, usually, in parallel construction.

**Material.** For correlative conjunctions, see 274. For coördinate sentence elements, see 101. For sentence elements, see 85. For parallel construction, see 90.

#### Incorrect

##### COÖRDINATE WORDS, PHRASES, ETC.

Uncle sent separate invitations both *to Henry* and *me*.

#### Correct

Uncle sent separate invitations to both *Henry* and *me*.

Uncle sent separate invitations both *to Henry* and *to me*.

##### COÖRDINATE CLAUSES

Either *we must push on at once* or *stay here all night*.

We must either *push on at once* or *stay here all night*.

**In these incorrect sentences, what kind of sentence element follows each correlative conjunction?**

1. Bert was not only feared by his enemies, but he was disliked by most of his acquaintances.
2. I was convinced that Harry would neither forgive me, nor would he forget the incident.
3. The horse I rode was not only lazy, but also his trot was uncomfortably hard.
4. He had taken up the study of French not only to please his mother, but also because he expected soon to visit France.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. She neither took notes herself, nor would she even take the trouble to read the notes of her friends.
2. The new teacher turned out to be not only a very well-read man, but a first-rate oarsman as well.
3. It was she who did the washing both for my mother and most of the neighbors as well.
4. The boat we first looked at was neither suitable for our purpose nor attractive as a bargain.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 28

### Are Analogous Elements in Pairs Parallel?

**Principle.** As a rule, sentence elements having the same function to perform should be in parallel construction. Each of the parallel units should contain such introductory words as are necessary for the accurate expression of the meaning.

**Material.** For parallel construction, see 90. For sentences in parallel construction, see 92. For accurate parallel construction, see 91.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### INDEPENDENT CLAUSES

Let me suggest two things: <i>watch out for foot-faults; nor is it well to play too close to the net.</i>	Let me suggest two things: <i>watch out for foot-faults, and do not play too close to the net.</i>
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##### RELATIVE CLAUSES

I finally selected a dictionary <i>containing all the new terms in aviation, and which therefore met my needs.</i>	I finally selected a dictionary <i>which contained all the new terms in aviation, and which therefore met my needs.</i>
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##### VERBAL PHRASES

Taquet gets unusual effects <i>in his photographs by using a thin Japanese paper or when he puts his lens a trifle out of focus.</i>	Taquet gets unusual effects <i>in his photographs by using a thin Japanese paper or by put- ting his lens a trifle out of focus.</i>
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##### INTRODUCTORY WORDS OMITTED

Shirley invited <i>her mother and aunt.</i>	Shirley invited <i>her mother and her aunt.</i>
-------------------------------------------------	-----------------------------------------------------

**Compare:** Shirley invited Grace  
Holt, *her neighbor and chum.*

<i>If you value the delicate shading that only a virtuoso can give, and enjoy the atmos- phere of a musical audience, you will not forsake the concert hall for the radio.</i>	<i>If you value the delicate shading that only a virtuoso can give, and if you enjoy the atmosphere of a musical au- dience, you will not forsake the concert hall for the radio.</i>
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## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 28 (CONTINUED)

In each of these awkward sentences, what word groups have the same function to perform? What changes will bring about parallel construction?

1. There is one car in particular which I'd like to own but can't afford its price.
2. I gathered what information I could from friends who had visited Japan and the encyclopedia.
3. We have to make a choice: to make rowing pay for itself, or we can drop it from our list of sports.
4. While still a puppy he was taught to beg when he wanted food and turn somersaults.
5. It is a system famous all over the country, and which more and more schools are adopting.
6. We provided ourselves with rods suitable for catching salmon and an assortment of stout lines and hooks.
7. In a few moments the man had the peak lowered, and thereby effectually reefing the heavy sail.
8. The gardener was a man whom we all liked but did not trust his judgment.

Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?

1. He fills his charity box by putting all his pennies in it, or whenever he gets a fee from a wedding.
2. My prize was a waste-paper basket too small to hold anything, and which was always falling over.
3. The new coach insisted on our always being on time and that we should warm up slowly before beginning real work.
4. We chose a lawyer who had not yet made a reputation, but on whose efforts we could therefore count the more.
5. I therefore made two resolutions: to start life afresh in a new place, and there I should build up a business of my own.
6. This was the reason for pruning the trees and for giving the ground its final cultivation.
7. A writer can make his effect if he holds in mind the impression he wishes to make, and if then he chooses the details that contribute to that impression.
8. In Italy we bought a new car, speedy and stylish, but which consumed far too much gasoline.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 29

### Are Analogous Elements in Series Parallel?

**Principle.** As a rule, sentences or sentence elements that are in series (-----, -----, and (or) -----) should be in parallel construction. Each member of the series should contain such introductory words as are necessary for the accurate expression of the meaning.

**Material.** For parallel sentences and sentence elements in series, see 92-93. For accurate parallel construction, see 91.

#### Incorrect

#### SENTENCES

We divided the duties thus:  
*Jack was to look after the music.  
The duty of providing refresh-  
ments was given to Ruth and her  
sister. Dick and I were told that  
we must get out the invitations.*

#### Correct

We divided the duties thus:  
*Jack was to look after the music.  
Ruth and her sister were to pro-  
vide the refreshments. Dick and  
I were to get out the invitations.*

#### PREDICATES

The principal of my first  
school was *stern, morose, and  
never had been known to smile.*

The principal of my first  
school was *stern, had a morose  
nature, and never had been  
known to smile.*

By silent signals with his arm  
*he turns his company, halts it,  
and he makes it go through the  
most complicated maneuvers.*

By silent signals with his arm  
*he turns his company, halts it,  
and makes it go through the most  
complicated maneuvers.*

#### INTRODUCTORY WORDS OMITTED

Arthur sold *some to his fa-  
ther, to his uncle, and his elder  
brother.*

Arthur sold *some to his father,  
some to his uncle, and some to  
his elder brother.*

I accompanied my applica-  
tion with three letters of recom-  
mendation, *from the principal  
of my high school, Mr. Howard  
Fox, and Dr. Moffatt.*

I accompanied my applica-  
tion with three letters of recom-  
mendation, *from the principal  
of my high school, from Mr. How-  
ard Fox, and from Dr. Moffatt.*

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 29 (CONTINUED)

**In each of these awkward sentences, which word groups have the same function to perform? What changes will bring about parallel construction?**

1. I began by equipping myself with a Spanish grammar, a dictionary, and somebody gave me a book of easy stories.
2. The sailors were all busy, some at chipping old iron, some at painting, and others were mending the hatch covers.
3. The new cook was young, vigorous, and didn't care how much work she had to do.
4. He liked to visit odd corners of the town that his friends did not know, poke about them, and see what he could see.
5. Vitamins are found in fresh vegetables, in certain meats, and they are especially plentiful in sea foods.
6. In his new position he had to supply news articles, editorials, and write heads for the stories telegraphed in.
7. We received most of our advertising from food stores, from tailors patronized by the students, and merchants interested in the school.

**Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?**

1. At least she learned to speak French as well as most girls speak, play a bit on the piano, and enter a room gracefully.
2. After providing for his relatives, he left the rest of his money to his church, the Protestant Orphan Asylum, and to the city for equipping playgrounds.
3. We picked up the necessary knowledge by watching boat-builders work, by consulting technical books, and by experimenting.
4. The tramp came straight to the kitchen door, told his story, and the cook didn't have the heart to turn him away.
5. The major had a swift, twisting service, a deadly forehand drive, and could lob more accurately than any other player I know.
6. Each one agreed to bring his own blankets, to provide his own food, and to be on hand promptly at eight o'clock.
7. We had several good reasons for keeping the dog: he was, in the first place, gentle; then too, he was useful as a watch dog; he was, finally, much attached to the children.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 30

### Is Ellipsis in Parallel Construction Correct?

**Principle.** Anything omitted from one of two parallel parts of a sentence should be present in the other part, and should have the same form and use. (If such ellipsis results in an awkward sentence, complete reconstruction is desirable. See last part of 353.)

**Material.** For ellipsis in parallel parts of a sentence, see 106.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### PREPOSITION OMITTED

He was either scornful or bored *by* all the pictures there.

He was either scornful *of* or bored *by* all the pictures there.  
[Awkward]

He was either scornful of all the pictures there, or bored by them.

##### CONJUNCTION OMITTED

That building is as high, if not higher, *than* any in Denver.

That building is as high *as*, if not higher *than*, any in Denver. [Awkward]

That building is as high as any in Denver, if not higher.

The new model is more powerful, and quite as reliable, *as* that of last year.

The new model is more powerful than that of last year, and quite as reliable.

##### AUXILIARIES DIFFERENT IN FORM

Meantime the trunks *were* packed and the house thoroughly cleaned.

Meantime the trunks *were* packed and the house *was* thoroughly cleaned.

##### VERBALS DIFFERENT IN FORM

Don't try to see all the plays that your friends have and are *seeing*.

Don't try to see all the plays that your friends have *seen* and are *seeing*.

We had both gone as far as we wished or could *go*.

We had both gone as far as we wished *to go* or could *go*.

## GRAMMATICAL PROBLEM 30 (CONTINUED)

### NOUNS DIFFERENT IN NUMBER

Chester was one of the fastest, if not the fastest, *hurdler* in the League.

Chester was one of the fastest *hurdlers*, if not the fastest *hurdler*, in the League. [*Awkward*]

Chester was one of the fastest *hurdlers* in the League, if not the fastest.

### VERB FORMS DIFFERENT IN USE

He *is* a good fielder and considered an excellent pitcher as well.

He *is* a good fielder and *is* considered an excellent pitcher as well.

### AUXILIARIES REPEATED FOR CLARITY

The lights *were* then turned on again, and the dancers seen in a final ballet.

The lights *were* then turned on again, and the dancers *were* seen in a final ballet.

How should illogical or awkward ellipses be corrected in these sentences?

1. The plates for this edition were old, but used because they were cheap.
2. The poor fellow was acutely conscious and irritated by their curious staring.
3. Molly's Dutch costume was very effective and voted the most attractive of all those worn.
4. In the pitcher's box Warren is swifter but not so steady as Breitkopf.
5. When the new carpet was laid and the curtains hung, the effect was even better than we had expected.

Which sentences are correct? Which need correction?

1. By ten o'clock all the lights were out and the whole house quiet.
2. I was more tired than my brother, but not so footsore.
3. You would hardly believe all that Mrs. Dutton can and is doing for Harriet Harper.
4. By orders of the police the town was searched and all the roads were watched.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 1

### Is It a Period Fault?

**Principle.** A dependent sentence element, being only a part of a sentence, should not be separated from the rest of the sentence by a period.

**Material.** For dependent sentence elements, see the subordinate clause (83), the phrase (67-69), and other word groups as sentence elements (88). For the period fault, see 285.

#### Incorrect

##### INTRODUCTORY CLAUSE

When the fruit has been brought to the packing house. The first process is that of grading.

#### Correct

When the fruit has been brought to the packing house, the first process is that of grading.

##### LONG INTRODUCTORY PHRASE

After listening to the moving appeal of the lawyer for the defense. The jury was in no mood to follow the close reasoning of the district attorney.

After listening to the moving appeal of the lawyer for the defense, the jury was in no mood to follow the close reasoning of the district attorney.

##### FINAL RELATIVE CLAUSE

We had to choose our candidates from a long list. Which this time exceeded forty names.

We had to choose our candidates from a long list, which this time exceeded forty names.

##### FINAL ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

Nobody seems to be able to solve the problem of "rushing." Though everybody acknowledges the evils of the present system.

Nobody seems to be able to solve the problem of "rushing," though everybody acknowledges the evils of the present system.

##### FINAL PHRASE

The medical course lasts six years. The last two years being devoted to practical duties in a hospital.

The medical course lasts six years, the last two years being devoted to practical duties in a hospital.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 1 (CONTINUED)

### APPOSITIVE WITH MODIFIERS

Another of his prized possessions was an old copy of Bowditch. For generations a standard work on practical navigation.	Another of his prized possessions was an old copy of Bowditch, for generations a standard work on practical navigation.
-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Separate independent units by periods. Show by punctuation that dependent sentence elements are parts of sentences.

1. Arthur looked proudly at the woodpile it represented a week's hard work.
2. We were allowed to carry firearms though we were pledged to use them only in self-defense.
3. Books seldom called for fill half this wing the remaining shelves being used for filing away magazines.
4. When the casting has become sufficiently cool to handle an experienced workman comes to draw it from the mold.
5. Andrew never forgot that trip which marked a turning point in his life.
6. I was too much frightened to run never before had I seen a wildcat.
7. The whole family took pleasure in Mother's present a year's subscription to *Punch*.

Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?

1. Bob never fished long in one place. He was always hoping to find a "better hole."
2. Since a strong smell of onions came from the kitchen. I lit a stick of Chinese incense in the hall.
3. Next I clipped the hedge. That job alone took more than two hours.
4. He declared that he didn't have money enough to travel. Not like a gentleman, at least.
5. What could I do? When I hadn't even a knife to help me.
6. Technically the law was defective. Its purpose, though, was perfectly clear.
7. The sonnet is divided into an octave and a sestet. The octave consisting of eight lines.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 2

### Are Principal Clauses Properly Separated?

**Principle.** The comma should ordinarily be used between principal clauses joined by a conjunction, unless some special need for a stronger separating mark justifies the semicolon.

**Material.** For the principal clause, see 82. For the comma or the semicolon between principal clauses, see 290. For short clauses without separating punctuation, see 289.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### CLAUSES WITHOUT INTERNAL COMMAS

I reached for my hip pocket as if to draw a gun *and* in an instant the tramp was scurrying down the road.

The water in the bath was invitingly hot *and* clean towels hung upon the rack.

I reached for my hip pocket as if to draw a gun, *and* in an instant the tramp was scurrying down the road.

The water in the bath was invitingly hot, *and* clean towels hung upon the rack.

##### CLAUSES WITH INTERNAL COMMAS

The Sunday trains, I learned, were few and far between, *and* the bus service, which had only recently been established, was not to be relied on.

The Sunday trains, I learned, were few and far between; *and* the bus service, which had only recently been established, was not to be relied on.

##### SEPARATION REQUIRING SPECIAL EMPHASIS

Dr. Barker made those poor people believe that he was a really competent physician, *but* he wasn't.

I vowed that I would win that match or die, and I didn't die.

Dr. Barker made those poor people believe that he was a really competent physician; *but* he wasn't.

I vowed that I would win that match or die; and I didn't die.



## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 2 (CONTINUED)

Use commas or semicolons, as circumstances require, to separate principal clauses.

1. I walked ahead with Mary and Harold presently picked us up in his car.
2. Jerry was fat but few would call him clumsy.
3. A team may have players of the highest individual merit but without good teamwork they will never succeed.
4. The battery, if it wasn't entirely dead, would be too weak to drive the starter or a leak in the gas line would develop or the radiator would be found to be empty.
5. Peggy kept hitching her chair to attract attention but I don't think anybody noticed her.
6. The duke, who was now ruined, was forced, alas, to sell his collection of figurines and now they were, we were told, on public exhibition at the town hall.
7. The picture was one of Keith's best but in our small room it could not be seen to advantage.

Which sentences are well punctuated? In which could punctuation be improved?

1. Seven assistants divide the detailed work of the office between them, and the Attorney-General himself guides the policy of the office as a whole.
2. We did everything that our ingenuity could devise to make that mule go; but go he would not.
3. The army, at the time of which I am speaking, was far from its base of supplies, but its needs, we found, were being met by an effective fleet of motor lorries, which, under the direction of Colonel Skinner, was functioning perfectly.
4. The next house we bought was spacious and comfortable, and it was beautifully situated on a shady street, but in winter we found it as cold as a cellar.
5. She hoped against hope that people would come flocking in later; but not a soul came.
6. You may, if you so choose, drop out during any quarter, thus putting off your time of graduation, or you may, by sacrificing vacations, graduate in three years.
7. Again and again we had postponed inviting him until some more convenient time, and now it was too late.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 3

### Is It a Comma Fault? (I)

**Principle.** A comma should not stand in place of terminal punctuation; nor should it be used instead of the semicolon or colon that is required to separate principal clauses having no coördinating conjunction between them. (Note, however, that principal clauses in series may be separated by commas.)

**Material.** For terminal punctuation, see 281-282. For the comma fault, see 293. For the use of principal clauses instead of separate sentences, see 287. For the use of the colon instead of the semicolon, see 297. For the punctuation of clauses in series, see 291.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### COMMA FOR QUESTION MARK

*What could I do, he practically insisted on my staying.*

*What could I do? He practically insisted on my staying.*

##### COMMA FOR EXCLAMATION POINT

*Here was a pretty pickle, all we had between us was eighty cents.*

*Here was a pretty pickle! All we had between us was eighty cents.*

##### COMMA FOR PERIOD

*You were the one who saw her last, didn't she tell you where she was going?*

*You were the one who saw her last. Didn't she tell you where she was going?*

##### COMMA FOR COLON OR SEMICOLON

*Remember the side-shows, don't forget to take a pocketful of loose change.*

*Remember the side-shows; don't forget to take a pocketful of loose change.*

*My poor old aunt was a veritable night owl, her lamp was always lit till long after midnight.*

*My poor old aunt was a veritable night owl: her lamp was always lit till long after midnight.*

*I didn't feel like swimming that day, the water was much too cold.*

*I didn't feel like swimming that day; the water was much too cold.*

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 3 (CONTINUED)

### COMMAS SEPARATING CLAUSES IN A SERIES

The day was cloudy, the breeze came in quick gusts, and an icy nip was in the air.

**Punctuate the sentences that follow, using commas where commas are appropriate, semicolons or colons between independent statements, and terminal punctuation if one of the units is a question or an exclamation.**

1. Lincoln was not deterred by being misunderstood he was too deeply concerned with the task ahead
2. Getting letters is not an unmixed blessing people have a selfish way of expecting answers
3. The principals hadn't learned their lines the chorus was half-hearted in its work and the director was nervously irritable
4. The baby seemed to resent my going she set up a most disconsolate howl
5. The jury were heard shuffling toward the court-room what would their verdict be
6. Within six months the concrete began to buckle it had not been properly laid
7. In the evening an Oxford student must wear his gown on the street if he does not he is liable to a fine

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?**

1. Though now I must hurry to the printer's, I'll be back in half an hour.
2. Would he never go, he must have known that we wanted to be alone.
3. The steak was burned, the bread was soggy, and the potatoes were only half cooked.
4. The clerk records each sale on two slips, one of which goes to the customer.
5. Some students try to get their grades raised by flattering their instructors, this is called "apple polishing."
6. What a nuisance those mosquitoes were, some of them even got under the mosquito netting.
7. Since she had known the palm only in pictures, it seemed strange now to see it actually growing.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 4

### Is It a Comma Fault? (II)

**Principle.** If a conjunction and an adverbial connective stand between principal clauses, a comma should be used before the conjunction; but if only an adverbial connective stands between such clauses, a semicolon (or a colon) should be placed before it. (Note that an adverbial connective used in a complex sentence does not fall under the rule.)

**Material.** For underlying principles involved, see Punctuation Problem 3. For adverbial connectives, what they are and how they are used, see 265-266. For the comma fault with an adverbial connective, see 294. For the punctuation of *so*-clauses, see 296. For the correct use of the comma with an adverbial connective, see 295.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

#### CONJUNCTION AND ADVERBIAL CONNECTIVE

The outlook was gloomy enough, *but nevertheless* it was not hopeless.

#### ADVERBIAL CONNECTIVE WITHOUT CONJUNCTION

There seemed to be nothing he could do, *consequently* he sat down calmly by the side of the pond.

His new life was easy enough, *for all that*, it was certainly monotonous.

Most of the younger men were off with the army, *therefore* their duties had to be performed by older men or by women.

Mother saw that the time was getting short, *so* she opened the darning bag and set to work. [Possible]

There seemed to be nothing he could do; *consequently* he sat down calmly by the side of the pond.

His new life was easy enough; *for all that*, it was certainly monotonous.

Most of the younger men were off with the army; *therefore* their duties had to be performed by older men or by women.

Mother saw that the time was getting short; *so* she opened the darning bag and set to work. [Desirable]

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 4 (CONTINUED)

### ADVERBIAL CONNECTIVE IN COMPLEX SENTENCE

*Although* the crop was especially large that year, *nevertheless* we could pay off only half the mortgage.

**Punctuate the sentences that follow, using commas where they are appropriate, and placing semicolons where strong separating punctuation is required.**

1. The first cost of the other car is greater furthermore its upkeep will be more costly.
2. Our lawyer had told us how to proceed and therefore I took my complaint straight to the mayor's office.
3. The child did not seem delicate indeed I thought her distinctly robust.
4. The tree had been carefully sprayed but nevertheless every apple on it proved wormy.
5. This kind of mosquito was practically exterminated in Cuba hence yellow fever could no longer flourish there.
6. The bridge was known to be unsafe nevertheless the supervisors would not vote money for replacing it.

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?**

1. The ink stain did not come out, on the contrary it turned a deeper black.
2. Though I didn't, frankly, like his looks, I replied, nevertheless, as politely as I could.
3. The plates of the battery should be kept covered by water ; otherwise they will become warped and useless.
4. German inflections always irritated me, and so my work was handicapped by a strong sense of distaste.
5. The fruit is small and somewhat bitter, it is nevertheless excellent for making jelly.
6. In that region stone houses are comparatively cheap, besides, they effectively keep out the cold.
7. Though you may be older ; nevertheless I have had more experience with horses.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 5

### Are Items in Series Properly Separated?

**Principle.** Sentence elements in series are ordinarily separated by commas, even if *and* is used between the last two items of the series. Commas should not, however, separate adjectives forming inseparable word groups.

**Material.** For parallel elements in series, see 93. For the punctuation of sentence elements in series, see 302-303. For adjectives in inseparable word groups, see 95.

#### Incorrect

#### WORDS IN SERIES

She found it most wearisome to sell ribbon, hooks, and eyes, tape and spool-cotton all day long.

#### Correct

She found it most wearisome to sell ribbon, hooks and eyes, tape, and spool-cotton all day long.

#### PHRASES IN SERIES

The bees kept stinging him on his face; on his head; down his neck; even in his eyes.

The bees kept stinging him on his face, on his head, down his neck, even in his eyes.

#### ADJECTIVES IN INSEPARABLE WORD GROUPS

He never appeared in public without that ragged, old, felt hat.

He never appeared in public without that ragged old felt hat.

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?**

1. There was always a furtive, hunted expression in his faded old blue eyes.
2. I've cooked, ironed, swept, and dusted, and sewed all the morning; and now I'm tired.
3. It took him four hours to adjust, oil, grease, and wash and polish his car.
4. Stolidly staring at the wall opposite; muttering under his breath; and twitching at his coat; the prisoner seemed unaware of what was going on.
5. Nina was the handsomest, best-gaited, most spirited young colt in that country.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 6

### Does a Comma Prevent Misunderstanding?

**Principle.** When the function of a word, sometimes its part of speech, is in danger of being obscured by its position in relation to other words, the placing of a comma (or sometimes two commas) will usually prevent misunderstanding.

**Material.** For the meaning of "function," see 5. For words that might be misinterpreted, see 290 and 304.

#### Incorrect

##### COMMA SHOWING FUNCTION OF *And*

I never liked rowing *and* sailing always made me sick.

#### Correct

I never liked rowing, *and* sailing always made me sick.

##### COMMA SHOWING PART OF SPEECH

Mrs. Jones was cooking supper *for* her cook was sick.

Mrs. Jones was cooking supper, *for* her cook was sick.

##### COMMA SHOWING WORDS OMITTED

This shed is used for housing garden tools, that for storing wood.

This shed is used for housing garden tools; that, for storing wood.

**Punctuate the following sentences so as to prevent possibility of misunderstanding.**

1. We always played cards of an evening for recreation was a family hobby.
2. When he had walked three miles and a half of his journey was over, he sat down to rest.
3. At last we found them all but Mary was not discovered until after ten o'clock.
4. I will not go for the doctor said he wanted me to stay here.

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?**

1. He observed that above the trees stopped at the snow line.
2. These boxes are full of apricots; but those, of the juiciest peaches I have ever tasted.
3. If you will show me how, it will be easy to mend it.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 7

### Is a Separating Comma Used Incorrectly?

**Principle.** In a continuous sentence a comma should not separate the essential parts of a framework; nor should it separate an adjective and its substantive if the adjective stands first. (A quoted sentence or a sentence incorporated within another may, however, be separated from the words that introduce them.)

**Material.** For the construction of frameworks, see 37, 40, and 46. For separating punctuation that is undesirable, see 311-312. For punctuation that separates an introduction from a quoted or incorporated sentence, see 298-299.

#### Incorrect

##### BETWEEN SUBJECT AND VERB

A newspaper, magazine, or other periodical, may be sent second-class.

The long line of shabbily clad mourners that followed behind the hearse, walked uncertainly over the rough cobblestones.

#### Correct

A newspaper, magazine, or other periodical may be sent second-class.

The long line of shabbily clad mourners that followed behind the hearse walked uncertainly over the rough cobblestones.

##### BETWEEN VERB AND OBJECT

It was Cole who received, selected, and edited, all the telegraphic dispatches.

It was Cole who received, selected, and edited all the telegraphic dispatches.

##### BETWEEN VERB AND PREDICATE NOMINATIVE

The only fruits that he was allowed to sell were, oranges, lemons, and grapefruit.

The only fruits that he was allowed to sell were oranges, lemons, and grapefruit.

##### BETWEEN ADJECTIVE AND SUBSTANTIVE

Nancy was the most whimsical, mischievous, tantalizing, youngster I have ever known.

Nancy was the most whimsical, mischievous, tantalizing youngster I have ever known.



## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 7 (CONTINUED)

### BETWEEN INTRODUCTION AND INDIRECT DISCOURSE

Mr. Forsyth said, that the barometer was falling.

Mr. Forsyth said that the barometer was falling. [*Indirect*]

Mr. Forsyth said, "The barometer is falling." [*Direct*]

The captain explained to us, how the sextant is used.

The captain explained to us how the sextant is used.

**Insert separating commas only at the points where they are appropriate.**

1. The three things that I most liked about the car were its sturdy engine its roominess and its quick pick-up.
2. The only question that the guests seemed interested in was When will tea be served?
3. Though an old lady's pet he was undoubtedly an ugly quick-tempered savage dog.
4. The skill with which he would flip up turn and catch those flapjacks was a marvel to me.
5. Where he had spent those ten days was a question that he would never answer.
6. A tattered smoke-stained haggard prisoner was led in before the general.
7. Nobody who was at all sensitive to what the people were saying could have made such an appointment.

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?**

1. The old fellow's stock in trade consisted wholly of, kitchen ware, sewing implements, and cheap jewelry.
2. Even in our darkest moments I couldn't help thinking, What an adventure this is!
3. To take down, dust, and put back, all those books was a task that daunted even Maggie.
4. Father's first task was to learn from the mate, what should be done in case of fire.
5. Even the oldest native had never known so cold, wet, and disagreeable, a summer.
6. Leonardo da Vinci tells us in his writings how he tried to solve the problem of flying.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 8

### Is a Parenthetical Element Properly Set Off?

**Principle.** A sentence element introduced as a parenthetical interruption in a sentence should be completely set off, that is, between two commas. (Note, however, that closely related clauses like *do you suppose* may be exceptions.)

**Material.** For the punctuation of sentence elements introduced parenthetically into a sentence, see 316. For the effect of using but one comma to set off parenthetical matter, see 312.

#### Incorrect

##### WORDS OF ADDRESS

I can't tell you *Mr. Hartley*,  
how it happened.

#### Correct

I can't tell you, *Mr. Hartley*,  
how it happened.

##### ADVERBS INTERRUPTING CONTINUITY

Her toilet articles *unhappily*,  
had been locked in the trunk.

The beds *to be sure*, were  
nothing to boast about.

Her toilet articles, *unhappily*,  
had been locked in the trunk.

The beds, *to be sure*, were  
nothing to boast about.

##### ADVERBIAL CONNECTIVES INTERRUPTING CONTINUITY

He quarreled with almost  
everybody; with my father  
*however*, he was always friendly.

He quarreled with almost  
everybody; with my father,  
*however*, he was always friendly.

##### LIGHTLY EXCLAMATORY EXPRESSIONS

Nobody had thought *alas*, to  
bring a can-opener.

Nobody had thought, *alas*,  
to bring a can-opener.

##### PARENTHETICAL VERBAL PHRASES

At nine o'clock, *the moon having just risen* we set out.

One can, *by using artificial light* get the plants to bloom almost at will.

At nine o'clock, *the moon having just risen*, we set out.

One can, *by using artificial light*, get the plants to bloom almost at will.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 8 (CONTINUED)

### PARENTHETICAL CLAUSES

The Empress Hotel, *I was advised before starting* would be the best for our purpose.

Who, *do you suppose*, told her?

The Empress Hotel, *I was advised before starting*, would be the best for our purpose.

Who *do you suppose* told her?

Set off appropriately the parenthetical interruptions in these sentences.

1. Watch then for the signal.
2. How late do you think the boat will be this time?
3. Many a man today to tell the truth has a sentimental affection for the dime novel of his boyhood.
4. The judges decided that the *Ladoga* on account of having fouled the *Spindrift* should be declared the winner.
5. The best way to get that paint off Joe is to use cold cream.
6. The crew takes its relaxation during the dog watches that is between four and eight P. M.
7. The judge in hurrying to get off on time had quite forgotten the theater tickets.
8. Did anyone ever read you the story Bert of how the elephant got its trunk?

Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?

1. That dog of yours, confound him, has been at my garbage can again.
2. Where, did he say, that we should look for him?
3. The brakes had been recently relined; they became hot therefore, on the slightest provocation.
4. The fast boats on that line, we were told by experienced travelers all vibrated in a most uncomfortable fashion.
5. Some of those who have an "idiosyncrasy" cannot, he explained, eat strawberries with impunity.
6. A dramatic society organized on such principles, it was concluded could not help being successful.
7. Who do you suppose called when you were down town?
8. A tennis court, if it is to be well lighted should lie north and south.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 9

### Is Introductory or Final Matter Set Off?

**Principle.** It is desirable to set off by a comma (1) a subordinate clause or a long phrase introducing a sentence, and (2) such final clauses as are introduced by *although*, *though*, *for*, or *as* or *since* (indicating cause).

**Material.** For the subordinate clause, see 83. For the phrase, see 67-69. For the punctuation of introductory matter, see 317. For the punctuation of final matter, see 318.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### INTRODUCTORY SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

If the barometer begins suddenly to fall look out for a bad storm.

If the barometer begins suddenly to fall, look out for a bad storm.

##### LONG INTRODUCTORY PHRASE

In watching the maneuvers of the yachts about the starting line; our skipper nearly collided with a yawl under his lee.

In watching the maneuvers of the yachts about the starting line, our skipper nearly collided with a yawl under his lee.

##### FINAL CLAUSE INTRODUCED BY *Although*, ETC.

Of course the check came back to me since I had failed to sign my name.

Of course the check came back to me, since I had failed to sign my name.

Set off appropriately such introductory and final matter as requires setting off.

1. When we had at last found and lighted a few candles the electric light suddenly flashed on again.
2. From around the point at the farther end of the beach who should appear but Sally Winters?
3. By this time we were all ready to return home especially since the money we had brought was nearly exhausted.
4. By noon we all agreed to reel in our lines as the fish were no longer biting.
5. Such examinations are reasonably fair tests although nobody considers them absolutely perfect.
6. If you have trouble with ants notify me at once.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 10

### Is an Appositive Properly Set Off?

**Principle.** Nonessential appositives are set off by the comma, but essential appositives are not set off. Delayed appositives are usually set off by the dash, the word *namely* or its equivalent, if used, being itself followed by the comma.

**Material.** For the appositive, see 57. For essential and non-essential appositives, see 58. For the delayed appositive, see 59.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### NONESSENTIAL APPOSITIVE

I find Thornton's latest novel  
*Things Beyond* rather tedious.

He carried a ewer or pitcher  
in his right hand.

I find Thornton's latest novel,  
*Things Beyond*, rather tedious.

He carried a ewer, or pitcher,  
in his right hand.

##### ESSENTIAL APPOSITIVE

In that sentence the word,  
*since*, is a conjunction.

In that sentence the word  
*since* is a conjunction.

##### DELAYED APPOSITIVE

One virtue, at least, the car  
has; reliability.

One virtue, at least, the car  
has — reliability.

**Set off appropriately such appositives as require setting off.**

1. The schooner *Dauntless* was a famous champion in her day.
2. The colonel a fine old soldier just home from India tried to interest us all in polo.
3. Two quarter-notes or crotchets have the time value of a half-note or minim.
4. The winner Rob Roy was a three-year-old gelding belonging to Major Watrous.

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?**

1. Two of the newest buildings, namely: the gymnasium and the library, had been partially destroyed.
2. For this purpose the dictionary or the atlas will serve.
3. The daughter of an old college chum happened to be on the same steamer with him, Miss Stafford.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 11

### Is a Modifier Essential or Nonessential?

**Principle.** If a word and its modifying phrase or clause form an inseparable unit of thought, the modifier is essential, and closeness of relationship is shown by the absence of separating punctuation. If, however, the modifier merely adds an unnecessary item of information to an already complete unit of thought, the modifier is nonessential and is set off by the comma.

**Material.** For adjectival and adverbial modifiers, see 96-97. For essential and nonessential modifiers, see 98. For the relative clause and its antecedent, see 156-157. For *when*, *where*, etc., as relative adverbs, see 252.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### MODIFIERS INTRODUCED BY RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Any student, *who had won his letter*, had the privilege of voting.

Jackson *who had won his letter in three different sports* acted as chairman.

They next spread damp earth over the whole concrete pavement *which was thus prevented from drying out too fast*.

Any student *who had won his letter* had the privilege of voting.

Jackson, *who had won his letter in three different sports*, acted as chairman.

They next spread damp earth over the whole concrete pavement, *which was thus prevented from drying out too fast*.

##### MODIFIERS INTRODUCED BY RELATIVE ADVERBS

I shall never forget the time, *when I thought I had lost my pony in Jackson's Hole*.

He was born in 1921 *when Harding was president*.

We went straight to the St. Francis *where our friends had promised to meet us*.

I saw no reason, *why he should be so disagreeable about it*.

I shall never forget the time *when I thought I had lost my pony in Jackson's Hole*.

He was born in 1921, *when Harding was president*.

We went straight to the St. Francis, *where our friends had promised to meet us*.

I saw no reason *why he should be so disagreeable about it*.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 11 (CONTINUED)

### ADJECTIVE-PHRASE MODIFIERS

A desk, *littered with papers*, makes a bad impression on a stranger.

Phil's desk *littered with papers* stood in the farthest corner.

A desk *littered with papers* makes a bad impression on a stranger.

Phil's desk, *littered with papers*, stood in the farthest corner.

**Set off appropriately such modifying phrases or clauses as require setting off.**

1. All his books which he had collected with such delight were sent to the auctioneer's.
2. He showed me a snapshot of his little girl feeding a squirrel.
3. I met him by accident at one o'clock when he was on his way to lunch at the club.
4. They went for their honeymoon to one of those remote lakes in Canada where you are two days from a telephone.
5. I relied on Jim for matches which he always kept in a worn leather match-box.
6. The reason why he had kept the matter a secret had never been explained.
7. None of the men with whom he had served through the war lived in his part of the country.

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?**

1. Ponsonby was the only man in his company, with whom he was not on the pleasantest of terms.
2. Mrs. Saxe had told us of her favorite restaurant on Post Street, where we could get delicious clam chowder.
3. Of his four sons, the boy, who is serving in the navy, is the youngest.
4. On the boat they got me to tell of my adventures when I was camping alone on the Mohave Desert.
5. I first met Beaman in Alaska where he was acting as agent for a steamship line.
6. These trolley cars, running from the city of Oakdale, had recently been sold to capitalists from Chicago.
7. His eldest daughter who was still at boarding school on Long Island had just announced her engagement.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 12

### Is Inserted Matter Appropriately Set Off?

**Principle.** When it is desired to interrupt a sentence for an abrupt insertion or for some markedly unimportant detail, parentheses are usually appropriate, unless dashes in pairs are to be preferred for their informality. Brackets ([ ]) are reserved for editorial comment.

**Material.** For methods of setting off abrupt assertions, incidental details, and editorial comment, see 313-315. For the use of capitals and punctuation with parentheses, brackets, and dashes in pairs, see 309-310.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### INSERTIONS INTRODUCED ABRUPTLY

Doric architecture, consult any dictionary for typical illustrations, was characterized by strength and simplicity.

Doric architecture (consult any dictionary for typical illustrations) was characterized by strength and simplicity.

##### INSERTIONS INTRODUCED INFORMALLY

Our party this time — but how different from last year, when you were along — is on the whole pleasant enough.

##### MARKEDLY UNIMPORTANT DETAILS

Every evening the Countess played piquet (or solitaire, if she chanced to be alone) from nine o'clock to eleven sharp.

##### MATTER INSERTED BY AN EDITOR

"You are," he wrote, "at libberty (sic) to sue me if you so desire."

"You are," he wrote, "at libberty [sic] to sue me if you so desire."

The Prince thereupon wrote to his cousin [i.e., Emperor Charles, of Germany], asking for support in a punitive expedition.



## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 12 (CONTINUED)

Set off appropriately such interruptions as are inserted abruptly in these sentences.

1. Billy kept us entertained by stories and they lost, as usual, nothing in the telling of his escapades as a college student.
2. From my tent I can see the snow-clad cone of Mt. Baker it was named for a lieutenant of Vancouver's rising majestically above the lower hills.
3. "The exact date of Chaucer's birth *circa* 1340 is not known."
4. For a year after the accident do you remember our talking of it last summer? the air service was discontinued.
5. He is now seventy-six years old, and he still continues his habit of plunging every morning unless he is actually ill into the sea before breakfast.
6. "My honored opponent, whose lack of logic is more than made up for by his supply of entertaining stories laughter, seems to have forgotten the main issue of the debate."
7. It was as a psychologist the word is so often abused that I hesitate to use it rather than as a philosopher that he made his reputation.

Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?

1. She hoped, her letter went on, that I should not be too pre-occupied — sic — to join the party too.
2. If you haven't read the letters of Joseph Conrad (Jean-Aubry has edited them for Doubleday, Doran), you have a treat ahead of you.
3. "In those days the '*Bully Ruffian*' [*Bellerophon*] was the finest craft in Her Majesty's navy."
4. Why is it that the opera, I mean by that the standard, classical opera, is not more often heard in our cities?
5. "With such a standard-bearer for our high cause — cheers — can we expect anything but success?"
6. Tramping in thin-soled boots — nobody knows better than I — soon becomes positive torture.
7. Within three weeks he had enough German (to enable him to use reference books with comparative ease).

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 13

### Is Formal Enumeration Properly Punctuated?

**Principle.** In formal enumeration (but not otherwise) the introduction should be separated from the list of items by the colon. The items should be consistent with one another in structure, capitalization, and punctuation.

**Material.** For the distinction between items that are formally enumerated and those that are not, see 300. For consistency in the structure of items in series, see Grammatical Problem 29.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### ITEMS FORMALLY INTRODUCED

For changing a tire you will need the following tools; a jack, a rim-wrench, a hammer, and a pair of pliers.

Four tools are necessary for changing a tire. A jack, a rim-wrench, a hammer, and a pair of pliers.

For changing a tire you will need the following tools: a jack, a rim-wrench, a hammer, and a pair of pliers.

Four tools are necessary for changing a tire: a jack, a rim-wrench, a hammer, and a pair of pliers.

##### ITEMS INFORMALLY INTRODUCED

The tools that you will need are: a jack, a rim-wrench, a hammer, and a pair of pliers.

You will need several tools, namely: a jack, a rim-wrench, a hammer, and a pair of pliers.

The tools that you will need are a jack, a rim-wrench, a hammer, and a pair of pliers.

You will need several tools—namely, a jack, a rim-wrench, a hammer, and a pair of pliers.

##### STRUCTURE OF ITEMS

Three things you must not forget during my absence: to wind the clock. Then you must keep the garden watered. Finally the doors and windows must be carefully locked at night.

Three things you must not forget during my absence: to wind the clock, to keep the garden watered, and to lock the doors and windows carefully at night.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 13 (CONTINUED)

### PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION OF ITEMS

I have accomplished at least two good things: first, I have cleared myself of debt. Second, I have firmly established my credit.

I have accomplished at least two good things: first, I have cleared myself of debt; second, I have firmly established my credit.

Punctuate the sentences that follow (changing sentence form and capitalization wherever necessary) so as to show whether enumeration is formal or informal.

1. We divided the work as follows Hal was to look after the horses Sumner was to set up the camp I was to do the cooking.
2. Four papers were to be notified *The Times* *The World* the *Herald-Tribune* and the *Evening Post*.
3. Certain questions had first to be settled should we rent our house how long could we afford to be away in what school should the boys be left?
4. By this time their supplies were reduced to flour bacon coffee beans and sugar.

Which sentences are correctly worded and punctuated? Which need correction?

1. Before snapping your picture: see that the focus is right, that the right shutter speed is being used, and the diaphragm must be open far enough but not too far.
2. His toilet kit was equipped as follows: It had a brush and comb in it, a safety razor, shaving cream, and a cake of soap.
3. The following itinerary has been arranged: the Lake District (3 days); the Trossachs and Edinburgh (2 days); York, Durham, and Cambridge (3 days); London (6 days); and Devonshire and Cornwall (3 days).
4. Check these items before starting: (1) Are the brakes adjusted? (2) Are the tires in good order? (3) Are the distributor points filed? (4) Is there an emergency supply of electric-light bulbs?
5. The Academic Committees were these, Executive, Admission and Advanced Standing, Registration, Graduation, Library.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 14

### Should Quotation Marks be Used?

**Principle.** Quotation marks are used to indicate (1) the exact words of a speaker (i.e., words in direct, but not in indirect discourse), (2) words accurately copied from an original (unless the original is very familiar), and (3) technical terms presumably unfamiliar to the reader. They may be used also, as an alternative to italics, to inclose (4) titles of books, articles, etc., and (5) words used as words.

**Material.** For the occasions that call for the use of quotation marks (and for cautions regarding their use), see 322-326. For the choice between double and single quotation marks, see 321. For indirect discourse, see 76. For the choice between italics and quotation marks, see 325.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### EXACT WORDS OF A SPEAKER

Pete turned away, muttering, wait till I catch him!

The manager, glancing up, asked, "Why he was so late."

Pete turned away, muttering, "Wait till I catch him!"

The manager, glancing up, asked, "Why are you so late?"

The manager, glancing up, asked why he was so late.

##### WORDS ACCURATELY COPIED

It was Keats who wrote, A thing of beauty is a joy forever.

Keats calls "a thing of beauty a joy forever."

It was Keats who wrote, "A thing of beauty is a joy forever."

Keats calls a thing of beauty a joy forever.

Keats calls a thing of beauty "a joy forever."

Bill cheerfully agrees that it is never too late to mend.

##### UNFAMILIAR TECHNICAL TERMS

To keep the old schooner "full and by" was no easy task.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 14 (CONTINUED)

### BOOKS, TITLES, ETC.

You'll find it in Ludwig's  
*Napoleon*, Book V, "The  
Rock."

### WORDS USED AS WORDS

He has never grasped the  
difference between liable and  
likely.

He has never grasped the  
difference between "liable" and  
"likely."

He has never grasped the  
difference between *liable* and  
*likely*.

Supply these sentences with quotation marks or italics, if there is need for either, changing capitalization wherever necessary.

1. The Eve of St. Agnes is not to be found in The Golden Treasury.
2. Joan's only reply was, How happy could I be with either!
3. With her constant singing of the last rose of summer she drove me nearly crazy.
4. God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb occurs, I was astonished to learn, in Sterne's Sentimental Journey.
5. I knew, of course, that a stitch in time would save nine, but I was just then in a hurry.
6. Don't is not a contraction for does not.

Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?

1. The phrase "irrepressible conflict" at once took hold of the public consciousness.
2. The Queen's only reply, as usual, was to order the soldiers "to cut off his head."
3. It was the book called *How the Other Half Lives* that made his reputation.
4. Poor old Uncle Alf couldn't remember "Where the deuce he had left that hack saw."
5. He always greeted me with a cheerful "Top o' the morning to you!"
6. We at once rejected this "disinterested" advice.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 15

### Are Quotation Marks Correctly Placed?

**Principle.** Since one set of quotation marks incloses all the words quoted continuously from a single speaker or writer, a new set must be used (1) when a different speaker is to be indicated or (2) when a broken quotation is resumed after an interruption.

**Material.** For the use of quotation marks designating words spoken by one or more persons, see 322. For broken quotation, see 332.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### SPEECH OF ONE PERSON

She stammered out, "Take me to him." "I must see him at once." "Won't somebody take me to him?"

She stammered out: "Take me to him. I must see him at once. Won't somebody take me to him?"

##### SPEECH OF DIFFERENT PERSONS

Everybody was talking at once: "Have you seen him yet? Has the Prince arrived? Should you know him if you saw him?"

"You did it. Who — I? Yes, you."

Everybody was talking at once: "Have you seen him yet?" "Has the Prince arrived?" "Should you know him if you saw him?"

"You did it."

"Who — I?"

"Yes, you."

##### BROKEN QUOTATION

"I'm not sure, he replied, that I want to know him."

"I'm not sure," he replied, "that I want to know him."

Supply quotation marks wherever they are appropriate, and indicate where paragraphing should be changed.

1. Isn't forty dollars, she asked, a little too much to pay?
2. Tell me who said it. I don't know, I told you. Well, who do you think said it?
3. It's an outrage! he growled. It's pure blackmail. The man ought to be arrested.

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 16

### Is Punctuation within Quotation Marks Correct?

**Principle.** Punctuation that belongs to quoted matter stands normally within the quotation marks; but a period that would be logical after an embedded sentence is omitted. Punctuation that belongs to a sentence containing quoted matter stands normally outside the quotation marks; but a comma or a period that would logically follow marks of quotation is usually placed within those marks.

**Material.** For punctuation of quotation and of sentence, see 328. For terminal punctuation belonging to an embedded sentence, see 329. For the shifting of comma or period from sentence to quotation, see 330.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### PUNCTUATION BELONGING TO QUOTATION

"Have you ever noticed how like a walrus Driggs looks"?	"Have you ever noticed how like a walrus Driggs looks?"
---------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------

##### PUNCTUATION OF EMBEDDED SENTENCE

I followed, calling "I'll be back soon." to the gardener.	I followed, calling "I'll be back soon" to the gardener.
-----------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------

##### PUNCTUATION BELONGING TO SENTENCE

Do you know the meaning of "inductance?"	Do you know the meaning of "inductance"?
------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------

##### PUNCTUATION SHIFTED FROM SENTENCE TO QUOTATION

He had to look up the meaning of "inductance."

Place punctuation (if it is appropriate) before or after final quotation marks, as circumstances require.

1. When "Curfew must not ring to-night" was written, there were more curfew laws than there are now.
2. As the Persians say, "The jug goes to the well until it is broken"
3. He didn't say "battle-scared hero" he said "battle-scarred hero"

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 17

### Is an Introductory Quotation Correctly Punctuated?

**Principle.** When a sentence ending logically with a period introduces a sentence containing *he said* or its equivalent, a comma is substituted for the logical period, and the period is deferred until the end of the entire sentence. But when the introductory quotation ends with a question mark or an exclamation point, that mark is used within the quotation marks, and a period terminates the entire sentence. Under no one of these circumstances is a comma added after the quotation marks.

**Material.** For the terminal punctuation of an introductory quoted sentence leading to *he said* or its equivalent, see the last part of 329.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### INTRODUCTORY QUOTED STATEMENT

"You may take your swim without me this morning," yawned Percy, stretching comfortably in his bed.

"You may take your swim without me this morning," yawned Percy, stretching comfortably in his bed.

##### INTRODUCTORY QUOTED QUESTION OR EXCLAMATION

"Aren't you going to join us," called Fred?

"Aren't you going to join us?" called Fred.

"What a sluggard you are," exclaimed his brother!

"What a sluggard you are!" exclaimed his brother.

**Insert marks of punctuation appropriately in these sentences.**

1. "Never again " exclaimed Mervyn, after he had recovered control
2. "Shut the door, please" snapped my brother, glancing up from his book
3. "What's your hurry" called Mabs "There's plenty of time"
4. "What building is that" he asked "It looks like a public library"
5. "Come along, then " he replied "There's no time to spare "



## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 18

### Is Terminal Punctuation Simplified?

**Principle.** When quoted matter that calls for terminal punctuation stands at the end of a sentence, double terminal punctuation is usually avoided: (1) if two terminal marks of the same kind are logically called for, the second is dropped; (2) if a period and another terminal mark are logically called for, the period is dropped.

**Material.** For the normal punctuation of quotation and of sentence, see 328. For the simplification of double punctuation, see 331.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### TERMINAL MARKS OF THE SAME KIND

The attendant held the door, saying, "Nobody is permitted to enter while she is singing."

The attendant held the door, saying, "Nobody is permitted to enter while she is singing."

How he used to shout out "Hail, Columbia!"!

How he used to shout out "Hail, Columbia!"

##### A PERIOD AND ANOTHER TERMINAL MARK

For an encore he sang "Who is Sylvia?".

For an encore he sang "Who is Sylvia?"

##### QUESTION MARK AND EXCLAMATION POINT

How he amused us all with his "Eh, what?"!

**Insert terminal punctuation appropriately in these sentences.**

1. Mother looked up to ask, "Isn't it time to start"
2. How strange it seems to hear an Englishman at a telephone say "Are you there"
3. Why will she always choose "The year's at the spring"
4. Muriel's answer was an enthusiastic "Sure"

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?**

1. How does a Frenchman say, "What time is it?"?
2. How he loved to recite "A man's a man for a' that."!
3. Who is that calling "Help!"?

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 19

### Does the Comma Fault Occur in Broken Quotation?

**Principle.** When a continuous quotation is broken by *he said* or its equivalent at a point where a semicolon or a colon occurs, a semicolon or a colon should follow the interrupting expression; and if the quotation is broken at a point where terminal punctuation occurs, a period should follow the interrupting expression. The substitution of a comma for a required semicolon, colon, or period constitutes a comma fault.

**Material.** For broken quotation, see 332. For the comma fault, see 293. For the comma fault in broken quotation, see 333.

#### Incorrect

##### QUOTATION BROKEN AT COMMA

"Mr. Winters, may I not interest you in a vacuum cleaner?"

#### Correct

"Mr. Winters," he began pleasantly, "may I not interest you in a vacuum cleaner?"

##### QUOTATION BROKEN AT SEMICOLON (OR COLON)

"In those days bathrooms were almost unknown; consequently travelers carried their own tubs."

"In those days bathrooms were almost unknown," he went on, "consequently travelers carried their own tubs."

"In those days bathrooms were almost unknown," he went on; "consequently travelers carried their own tubs."

"It wasn't that they didn't like me: they actually disliked me."

"It wasn't that they didn't like me," she continued plaintively, "they actually disliked me."

"It wasn't that they didn't like me," she continued plaintively: "they actually disliked me."

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 19 (CONTINUED)

### QUOTATION BROKEN AT TERMINAL PUNCTUATION

“Where were you? We had  
given you up as lost.”

“Where were you?” he asked breathlessly, “we had given you up as lost.”

“Where were you?” he asked breathlessly. “We had given you up as lost.”

**Insert appropriate marks of punctuation both before and after the expressions that interrupt these sentences, and capitalize as circumstances require.**

1. “Some think that he has had some great sorrow” continued Edith “others insist that he is a refugee from justice.”
2. “What a sight you are” she exclaimed “and in ten minutes you should be ready to start.”
3. “Have you a key” he asked guiltily “I left mine in my other trousers.”
4. “So we have three choices” concluded the guide “we can camp here, we can go back to the cabin, or we can push on to Ford’s place.”
5. “How pale you’re looking” she exclaimed anxiously “is anything the matter?”
6. “If that is what you really meant all the time” she answered slowly “why didn’t you say so frankly at the beginning?”

**Which sentences are correctly punctuated and capitalized? Which need correction?**

1. “Have you no luggage?” asked the clerk, “then I must ask you to pay in advance.”
2. “Well, what of it?” drawled Terry, taking out his pipe, “we’ve got all the time there is.”
3. “How shameful!” he burst out. “No one has the right to talk like that.”
4. “But the fact remains that I don’t know you,” concluded the teller; “therefore I’m not allowed to cash your check.”
5. “My weekly stops will be as follows,” added Father: “next Sunday at Toledo, the following week at St. Louis, and the week after that at Washington.”
6. “Your squad will guard the bridge,” said the captain to Larry, “the other two will reconnoiter the bank on either side.”

## PUNCTUATION PROBLEM 20

### Is Quotation within Quotation Correctly Punctuated?

**Principle.** If double quotation marks inclose an entire quotation, single quotation marks inclose a quotation within that quotation; or *vice versa*. Other punctuation is adjusted or simplified as occasion requires.

**Material.** For the punctuation of a quotation within a quotation, see 334. For the adjustment and simplification of the punctuation of quoted matter, see 328-331.

#### Incorrect

#### Correct

##### DOUBLE AND SINGLE QUOTATION MARKS

"I saw the manager glance up to ask, Why are you so late? and then turn back to his desk."	"I saw the manager glance up to ask, 'Why are you so late?' and then turn back to his desk."
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

##### ADJUSTMENT OF PUNCTUATION MARKS

"I don't know the meaning of 'inductance'."	"I don't know the meaning of 'inductance.'"
---------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------

##### SIMPLIFICATION OF PUNCTUATION MARKS

"She turned to me briskly, with 'What a glorious day!'"	"She turned to me briskly, with 'What a glorious day!'"
---------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------

Supply these quoted sentences with double and single quotation marks and with other marks of punctuation correctly placed.

1. When Curfew must not ring to-night was written there were more curfew laws than there are now
2. Mother looked up to ask Isn't it time to start
3. Where should I look for Wordsworth's The world is too much with us

Which sentences are correctly punctuated? Which need correction?

1. "Muriel's answer was an enthusiastic 'Sure!'."
2. "Phœbe, who was just then reading 'The Blessed Damozel,' looked up quickly."
3. "How does a Frenchman say, 'What time is it?'"

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 1

### Should the Word Be Used in Formal Writing?

**Principle.** (1) Vulgarisms, (2) provincialisms, and (3) colloquialisms should not be used except under circumstances that specially justify them.

**Material.** For vulgarisms, see 338. For provincialisms, see 339. For colloquialisms, see 340.

**Express the thought of each sentence in diction that would be appropriate in formal writing.**

1. I learned piano-playing from Miss McChesney, but I disremember who gave me vocal.
2. The old fellow shrugged his shoulders, adding that he reckoned he'd been taken in on that deal.
3. He evidently couldn't run his hotel well, for the help all left inside of ten days.
4. My wife needs a change, but we can't get to go away any place this summer.
5. Since I have lots of spare time, I'll ask Father if I can take piano.
6. We hadn't seen anywheres a more homy place in which to vacationize.
7. Melissa is sure to come, but I can't guess just when she will show up.
8. Let me tote your bag a piece for you.
9. Somewheres about nine o'clock we decided to take in a show.
10. She was quite right in thinking that Mr. Grant had no business to speak that way.
11. The place was just what we had been looking for; we were all enthused about it.
12. It was quite a spell since he had had a date with Jerry's sister.
13. It was a long ways to go, but it was comfy when we arrived.
14. There was a light-complected stranger there who showed us quite a few new card tricks.
15. Ask him if he wants to help us get up a vaudeville show.
16. She was illy dressed, but she was just a picture of health.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 2

### Are Expressions Idiomatic?

**Principle.** In framing sentences, one should have regard to the idioms established by good usage.

**Material.** For unidiomatic expressions, see 341.

Express the thought of each sentence in idiom that would be appropriate in formal writing.

1. Read it out loud, so that we can all hear.
2. Did you ever have the privilege to hear Galli-Curci sing?
3. A little girl was struggling in the wind with a large-size umbrella.
4. He begged to lend her his own copy of the book.
5. The ladder was not high enough so that I could reach the upper window.
6. We couldn't seem to keep in step with each other; so we sat out the rest of the dance.
7. He used to come here frequently, but now he rarely ever calls.
8. Ned was a shy sort of fellow, but an all-around good student.
9. No, I never saw Hackett, at least so far as I can remember of.
10. Our team had lost out, but they couldn't blame their defeat on me.
11. I shall dine with you gladly, providing you'll let me come a little late.
12. They will sail separately, but will meet up in London on the third of August.
13. Our telephone was connected up before we had been in the new house two days.
14. Father didn't doubt but what somebody would be at the station to meet him.
15. Try and feather the oars as soon as you take them out of the water.
16. Lawrence caught the glass adroitly just as it was falling off of the table.
17. This is all the farther I can go with you today.
18. No one of us had the slightest idea where we were at.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 3

### Are Prepositions Idiomatic?

**Principle.** When accepted usage determines that a given word should be followed by a certain preposition, that usage should be followed.

**Material.** For the prepositions required by certain words, see 342. For choice of prepositions as required by circumstances, see 343.

**Express the thought of each sentence in acceptable English idiom.**

1. By jamming on the brakes and turning sharply, Nancy barely saved herself from colliding against the heavy bus.
2. Ralph was easy to get along with, for he would readily agree on anything I might propose.
3. His fleet consisted in a large yawl, a motor boat, and an assortment of rowboats.
4. She seemed totally oblivious to the sensation she was creating.
5. Poor Madge was so desirous for a slim figure that she nearly starved herself to death.
6. We wondered whether he would ever be reconciled with his loss.
7. After finishing my shopping, I shall wait on you at the boat-house.
8. It's a second-hand roadster that I bought off a man who was leaving town.
9. His father always insisted on comparing Milton's grades to those of his brother.
10. I didn't feel familiar enough to him to ask him the question directly.
11. Since the subject of the lecture was "A Proposal," we wondered just what it would treat on.
12. To her great surprise, her hosts were strongly averse from traveling on Sunday.
13. At least it was not my fault that he parted with me in anger.
14. The gun I finally bought was almost identical to his.
15. His wife, we learned, was always impatient of his indifference to time.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 4

### Is the Word Used as the Right Part of Speech?

**Principle.** The usage of cultivated writers should determine whether a word that may acceptably fulfil one function may also fulfil some other given function.

**Material.** For words that acceptably function as one part of speech but may not acceptably function as some other, see 344.

#### Unacceptable

#### Acceptable

##### WORDS NOT ACCEPTED AS NOUNS

Even her own cousin had not received an *invite* to the wedding.

Even her own cousin had not received an *invitation* to the wedding.

##### WORDS NOT ACCEPTED AS ADJECTIVES

There were not many men at the dance, but there were *plenty* girls.

There were not many men at the dance, but there were *plenty* of girls.

##### WORDS NOT ACCEPTED AS VERBS

Though he moved freely among the guests, no one *suspected* who he was.

Though he moved freely among the guests, no one *suspected* who he was.

##### WORDS NOT ACCEPTED AS ADVERBS

To me he had always seemed *kind of* morose.

To me he had always seemed *rather* morose.

The days are always warm, but the nights, you'll find, are *plenty* cool.

The days are always warm, but the nights, you'll find, are *cool enough*.

##### WORDS NOT ACCEPTED AS PREPOSITIONS

Most of the cherries had split, *due to* the late rains.

Most of the cherries had split, *as a result of* the late rains.

The splitting of the cherries was *due to* the late rains.

The rules of the road here are different *than* those we are used to.

The rules of the road here are different *from* those we are used to.



## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 4 (CONTINUED)

### WORDS NOT ACCEPTED AS CONJUNCTIONS

Keep your eyes down, *like* I do.

He lay there motionless, *like* he were stunned.

No one is allowed to use a canoe *without* he can swim.

Keep your eyes down, *as* I do.

He lay there motionless, *as if* he were stunned.

No one is allowed to use a canoe *unless* he can swim.

**Express the thought of each sentence in words that would be appropriate in formal writing.**

1. Many people suicided in the years following the World War.
2. Yes, the oranges are plenty ripe now.
3. Why can't you forget it, like I do?
4. In this speech the governor hurled a defy at the newspapers.
5. The weather all that month was kind of mild.
6. Many suffered that winter, due to unemployment.
7. She walked like she was carrying a basket on her head.
8. I kind of hoped you would want to come again.
9. Have you decided where you will vacation this year?
10. Am I to understand your action as a defy?
11. We had never known it to be that cold.
12. Don't come without you hear from me first.
13. Her house always seemed to us sort of forbidding.
14. The climate of England is comparatively mild, due to warm ocean currents.
15. She could never make crisp pastry like her mother could.
16. Within a week eleven people have suicided in this city.
17. I'll be there plenty soon.
18. He sauntered by, followed by two ungainly canines.
19. Don't call without you telephone to me in advance.
20. You will find me at the above address.
21. My father's firm was asked to join the combine.
22. When she drove, she hit the ball like she meant it.
23. Due to his long residence in the tropics, malaria has fastened upon him.
24. She advanced by kind of hitching herself along.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 5

### Are Pairs of Words Confused?

**Principle.** Distinctions of meaning between words that resemble each other in form should be carefully noted.

**Material.** For pairs of words that are sometimes confused, see 345.

**Make changes in diction that will bring out accurately the intent of each sentence.**

1. The story of his experiences at Verdun seemed scarcely credulous.
2. After the age of fifty Mr. Hudson found that tennis was too strenuous an exercise to be healthy for him.
3. Aunt Sarah had too many principals to act on all of them.
4. It was interesting to see how successfully Allison concealed his contemptible attitude toward his despicable opponent.
5. There was no mistaking him this time: his refusal was definite.
6. My hostess insisted on placing me at dinner besides the Governor.
7. Bobby was now obsessed with the idea of avenging himself on his brother.
8. If one of them didn't object to everything I purposed, the other did.
9. She knew I was disinterested in music, but she insisted on taking me to concerts.
10. No matter where he went, he was always liable to meet some old friend.
11. Cars of all descriptions followed one another in one continual line.
12. She found his steady reliability a helpful compliment to her eagerly ambitious disposition.
13. Once the thing was settled, neither of them made farther reference to it.
14. Holland, for example, can now send out only those immigrants whose names are on the quota.
15. You would never believe how luxurious her hair once was.
16. With all his efforts, he was unable to affect a reconciliation.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 6

### Are Meanings Misconceived?

**Principle.** Discrimination should be shown in selecting the right word from a pair somewhat similar in meaning.

**Material.** For pairs of words having meanings that are sometimes not discriminated, see 346.

**Make changes in diction that will bring out accurately the intent of each sentence.**

1. The only thing to do, it was finally decided, was to leave him take his own course.
2. The cashier wrote to advise her that her balance had fallen below fifty dollars.
3. In so small a place it doesn't do to be careless of one's character.
4. They hadn't talked ten minutes before they discovered that they had at least three mutual friends.
5. Call for me at five, for I generally leave the office at that hour.
6. The names on the badges made it easy for the delegates to come to know each other.
7. Nobody knew what transpired after the last guest had left the house.
8. Eighteen men were assigned to the first team, and the balance made up the second team.
9. Since the doctor did not wish to allude openly to her unhappiness, he confined himself to discreet hints.
10. In the discussion that followed, Ulrich claimed that no distinction could be made between investment and speculation.
11. Thereupon Grandfather decided to move on and locate somewhere else.
12. Though they had known each other only a month, a strong common regard had sprung up between them.
13. The family is somewhat scattered now, for both of the sons attend different universities.
14. Every week less people attended the concerts, until finally the series was given up.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 7

### Are the Meanings of "Element," etc., Discriminated?

**Principle.** Words of the group that includes *characteristic*, *element*, etc., should be used with intelligent discrimination.

**Material.** For the distinctions in meaning between *characteristic*, *element*, *factor*, *feature*, *phase*, and *quality*, see 347.

Complete each sentence by supplying the appropriate word.

1. One ----- of the fireplace that we especially appreciated was a coil of hot-water pipes behind the logs.
2. That tennis tournament was undoubtedly the most enjoyable ----- of our whole vacation.
3. The theory of politics was the ----- of political science in which I was most interested.
4. Those deeply jagged peaks beyond the lake were the most striking ----- of the landscape.
5. Parkinson's ability to break through interference was an important ----- in the success of our team.
6. The ----- of the circus that pleased me least of all was the side-show.
7. The ----- that we admired most in Professor Saunders was his sense of fairness.
8. The Teutonic ----- in the population was not at that time very large.
9. The simple greasing system installed in my car is the ----- of it that I most appreciate.
10. The ----- of the program that really attracted him to the movies, however, was the news reel.
11. Advertising, as a ----- in effective merchandising, might almost be said to be the hobby of the new manager.
12. The week we spent at Lake Como is a ----- of my summer travels that stands out with peculiar vividness.
13. There was one ----- in which lay Gassaway's influence — his power of making and holding friends.
14. There was no ----- of banking with which he was not perfectly familiar.
15. For all his attractiveness, no one ----- seemed to stand out above the rest.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 8

### Are Words Simple and Unaffected?

**Principle.** As a rule, downright words are to be preferred to euphemisms; short, direct words to pretentious or stilted expressions; precise terms to vague, loose expressions; and simple diction to trite rhetorical phraseology.

**Material.** For euphemisms, pretentious expressions, vague expressions, and trite rhetorical expressions, see 348-351.

**Express the thought of each sentence in simple, unaffected language.**

1. For misappropriating funds of the bank, he had been incarcerated for two years.
2. Our tents, nestled in a bosky hollow, made a pretty picture.
3. As a mortician he had accumulated considerable filthy lucre.
4. To win under such conditions would be a hard proposition for any team.
5. After a most enjoyable evening we all retired at last, tired but happy, to our downy couches.
6. At first he followed the tonsorial trade, but he found that he didn't like that line.
7. Mose was now the proud possessor of an artificial limb.
8. After partaking of a light repast, we were favored with a few selections played by Miss Armer.
9. A tall pine tree stood like a lonely sentinel by the wood-chopper's hut.
10. The Count was the recipient of a mysterious billet-doux from some member of the fairer sex.
11. Dixon professed to regard single blessedness as a distinct asset.
12. From that vertiginous height we looked with bated breath over the briny deep.
13. After working like Trojans all day, we were invited by our host to partake of a truly sumptuous repast.
14. We were soon in the arms of Morpheus, sleeping the sleep of the just.
15. Smithers next found a position in the line of hardware.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 9

### Are Unidiomatic Absolute Phrases Avoided?

**Principle.** Absolute participial phrases in which the substantive is a personal pronoun or in which the phrasal past participle (a passive) is used are unidiomatic in English, and should therefore be avoided.

**Material.** For the absolute participial phrase, see 232. For the phrasal past participle, see 219. For unidiomatic absolute phrases, see 352.

#### Ineffective

#### Effective

##### SUBSTANTIVE A PERSONAL PRONOUN

*I being at that time but ten years of age, my parents could not interest me in picture galleries.*

We chose the mountain road,  
*it being shorter than the other.*

*Since I was, at that time, but ten years of age, my parents could not interest me in picture galleries.*

We chose the mountain road  
*because it was shorter than the other.*

##### VERBAL A PHRASAL PAST PARTICIPLE (A PASSIVE)

*The election having been won,*  
the Republican job-hunters began operations.

*Now that the election was won,*  
the Republican job-hunters began operations.

**Express the thought of each sentence in natural English idiom.**

1. It was a pleasure to see the doctor at work, he knowing so well just what should be done.
2. The thieves had found the house easy of access, the side door having been carelessly left unlocked.
3. Our opponents disposed of us easily in straight sets, we being unused to playing on grass courts.
4. That day I could not use my own radio, the pole that held up the aerial having been blown down the night before.
5. He being a vegetarian, the plans for the dinner had to be changed entirely.
6. The letter could not be returned, no address having been written on the envelope.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 10

### Is Awkwardness of Structure Avoided?

**Principle.** It is desirable to avoid awkwardness of structure caused by the undue separation of closely related parts or by the pyramiding, one upon another, of clauses introduced by the same connective.

**Material.** For awkwardly suspended constructions, see 353. For awkwardly pyramided clauses, see 354.

#### Ineffective

##### SUBJECT AND VERB UNDULY SEPARATED

*They*, not being experienced sailors, *hired* a skipper to manage the boat.

#### Effective

Not being experienced sailors, *they hired* a skipper to manage the boat.

##### VERB AND OBJECT UNDULY SEPARATED

Malcolm *drew*, with a pair of compasses, *a circle*.

Malcolm *drew a circle* with a pair of compasses.

##### CONJUNCTIONS PYRAMIDED

They had to take a stage, *for* there were no trains running, *for* there had been a wreck down the line.

Since there were no trains running, because of a wreck down the line, they had to take a stage.

##### RELATIVE PRONOUNS PYRAMIDED

I talked with a patient there *who* had run over a pedestrian *who* was crossing the street with a woman *who* was blind.

A patient with whom I talked there had run over a pedestrian who was crossing the street with a blind woman.

**Revise these sentences so as to avoid awkwardness of structure.**

1. There was no water in the radiator, but we pressed on nevertheless, but the piston "froze" long before we reached home.
2. The pin that was used with the anchor that was kept for any emergencies that might arise was lost.
3. The captain sent, as soon as the sea had sufficiently subsided, a boat ashore for some fresh water.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 11

### Is Method of Expression Consistent?

**Principle.** There should be no arbitrary inconsistency in the grammatical method by which the thought of a sentence is expressed.

**Material.** For consistency in method of expression, see 355.

#### Ineffective

##### GENDER

The baby had merely bumped *its* head a little; *she* was soon playing happily again.

#### Effective

The baby had merely bumped *her* head a little; *she* was soon playing happily again.

##### PERSON

If *you* want to enjoy the game of golf, *one* must at the very beginning learn the strokes from a professional.

If *you* want to enjoy the game of golf, *you* must at the very beginning learn the strokes from a professional.

##### NUMBER

Longer *skirts* are becoming fashionable again, but the really sweeping *skirt* has probably gone forever.

Longer *skirts* are becoming fashionable again, but really sweeping *skirts* have probably gone forever.

##### FORM OF INDEFINITE PRONOUN

When *one* starts for a long tramp, *he* should wear a stout pair of boots well broken in.

When starting for a long tramp, *one* should wear a stout pair of boots well broken in.

When *a person* starts for a long tramp, *he* should wear a stout pair of boots well broken in.

##### TENSE

Mark Twain *writes* well, but he never *wrote* anything better than *Huckleberry Finn*, an early book.

Mark Twain *wrote* well, but he never *wrote* anything better than *Huckleberry Finn*, an early book.



## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 11 (CONTINUED)

### Mood

First *look up* your man in *Who's Who*: then you *should see* what you can find out about him in the magazines.

First *look up* your man in *Who's Who*: then *see* what you can find out about him in the magazines.

You *should* first *look up* your man in *Who's Who*, and then *see* what you can find out about him in the magazines.

### Voice

We *worked* hard all the afternoon, and before six o'clock the boat *had been put* into the water.

We *worked* hard all the afternoon, and before six o'clock *had put* the boat into the water.

**Express the thought of these sentences in consistent language.**

1. One will never be really at home on a horse until you can ride bareback with ease.
2. Throughout the year I took dancing lessons, but they were not enjoyed very much.
3. The dog, when I tried to find him, lay hidden in its kennel.
4. Walton praises the gentle art of fishing, and he expressed also his fondness for poetry.
5. Unless one gets to the ticket window early, you have to wait a long time in line.
6. He settles himself comfortably before the fire and would read far into the night.
7. I traveled most of the way by airplane, and my journey was thus completed within sixteen hours.
8. Although the oil-burning furnace is coming into wider use, foolproof oil-burners are still to be invented.
9. When, at twenty, one doesn't know what he wants to do, no one can help you.
10. The moment the ship lost her rudder, it was at the mercy of the storm.
11. He had sent the trunk off before it was realized that his money had been packed in it.
12. Walter uses his old bayonet as a poker because it always reminded him of his days spent in the army.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 12

### Are Modifiers Well Placed?

**Principle.** If sentences are not to be awkward, ambiguous, or ludicrous, modifiers should be so placed that the reader refers them instantly to the words they are intended to modify. Ordinarily a modifier should not, however, stand between *to*, the sign of the infinitive, and the verbal itself.

**Material.** For misplaced modifiers, see 356. For misplaced adverbs, see 357. For misplaced adjectival modifiers, see 358. For squinting modifiers, see 359. For the split infinitive, see 360.

#### Ineffective

##### MISPLACED ADVERBS

Phil declared that he *only* saw *two* pretty girls at the dance.

That was the *severest* spell of cold weather I *almost* ever have experienced.

#### Effective

Phil declared that he saw *only two* pretty girls at the dance.

That was *almost* the *severest* spell of cold weather I have ever experienced.

##### MISPLACED ADJECTIVAL MODIFIERS

*Nobody* will be a back-seat driver *who knows what trouble he may cause*.

We have a room for a single lady, *with a large bay window*, on our list.

*Nobody who knows what trouble he may cause* will be a back-seat driver.

We have on our list a room with a large bay window, for a single lady.

##### SQUINTING MODIFIERS

Although he was a strong swimmer, *when in training*, he never took long swims unaccompanied.

Although he was, *when in training*, a strong swimmer, he never took long swims unaccompanied.

Although he was a strong swimmer, he never, *when in training*, took long swims unaccompanied.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 12 (CONTINUED)

### SPLIT INFINITIVES

He liked nothing better than <i>to lazily lie</i> in a hammock and read.	He liked nothing better than <i>to lie lazily</i> in a hammock and read.
--------------------------------------------------------------------------------	--------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Place the modifiers in these sentences so that the reference of each is both clear and accurate.

1. The reply for which he had been so long waiting came by special delivery at last.
2. The witness replied that she had only seen the prisoner once in all her life to her knowledge.
3. Since we had never forgotten those days in France, when we were all together, we sent a telegram to our old commander.
4. For two days I could only eat the thinnest possible gruel.
5. An old Ford car was standing by the tool-house, belonging to the gardener.
6. The mysterious lifeboat that had been found on the beach yesterday was claimed by the Watson Navigation Company.
7. Father had just bought the cow from a farmer with two small calves.
8. That is the sort of experience that I never hope to have.
9. The son was very different from his father, with his heavy, bloodshot eyes and sullen mouth.
10. Before driving alone, everybody should learn how to quickly and efficiently change a tire.
11. I never remembered having been there before.
12. It was the longest letter he had almost ever written.
13. A wizened little Chinamen was picking strawberries with twinkling eyes.
14. When Grandmother traveled by motor bus, she made a firm resolve to never do so again.
15. He is a man whom I never hope to see in my house.
16. A boy occupied the seat next to mine, who later married my wife's sister.
17. Jerry began to tell how hard his life had been as soon as he met her.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 13

### Is Voice Appropriate?

**Principle.** In the interest of simplicity and vigor it is usually desirable to put the verb in the active voice, and to reserve the passive voice for assertions in which there is no reason for specifying the doer of the action, or in which special prominence should be given to the receiver of the action.

**Material.** For the inappropriate passive voice, see 361. For the inappropriate active voice, see 362.

#### Ineffective

#### Effective

##### NORMAL USE OF VOICE

Your acting *was* thoroughly enjoyed by us.

We thoroughly *enjoyed* your acting.

##### THE DOER OF THE ACTION UNSPECIFIED

People *catch* trout of several varieties in these waters.

Trout of several varieties *are caught* in these waters.

They seldom *wear* high hats nowadays.

High hats *are* seldom worn nowadays.

##### THE RECEIVER OF THE ACTION PROMINENT

The new patient was admitted by the hospital clerk, and was led to the ward by an orderly.

Use the voice that is appropriate for expressing the thought of each sentence.

1. It was Zabriski by whom the horse was trained.
2. In my part of the world one considers goat's milk a luxury.
3. The latest book on Russia has just been read by Mother.
4. An announcement has just been made that a new edition of Joseph Conrad's works will be brought out in the fall.
5. In parts of Spain they consider it unladylike for a woman to drive her own car.
6. In these towns of Holland people always keep the streets scrupulously clean.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 14

### Are Beginnings and Endings Weak?

**Principle.** Weakness of effect caused by placing unimportant sentence elements in positions of importance, at the beginning or at the end of a sentence, should ordinarily be avoided.

**Material.** For weak beginnings and endings, see 363.

#### Ineffective

#### Effective

##### SENTENCES WEAKLY INTRODUCED

*It seems to me* that the meadow-lark sings the most mystically enchanting song in all bird music.

The meadow-lark, *it seems to me*, sings the most mystically enchanting song in all bird music.

##### SENTENCES WEAKLY ENDED

It was impossible for any human being to scale that glassy, precipitous cliff, *or at least I should have judged so.*

It was impossible, *or at least I should have judged so*, for any human being to scale that glassy, precipitous cliff.

In spite of her plainness, she was a singularly attractive woman, *for some unaccountable reason.*

In spite of her plainness, she was, *for some unaccountable reason*, a singularly attractive woman.

**Improve the emphasis in these sentences by changes of sentence order.**

1. Behind his polished manner there was something that seemed faintly hostile and sinister, as it were.
2. In his opinion it ought to be impossible for anyone of proved criminal tendencies to marry.
3. The amount of mail that passed through that post office daily was incredible, most of us thought.
4. The banker enjoyed an excellent reputation and was incorruptible so far as any of us knew.
5. Never again, he vowed, would he have that impossible woman in his house, if he could possibly help it.
6. This latest novel of Miss Statler's is unquestionably her best, in the opinion of all the reviewers.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 15

### Do Sentences Contain Too Little?

**Principle.** Undue brevity in sentences should be corrected by supplying omitted words or ideas, or by deftly combining primerlike sentences.

**Material.** For incomplete sentences, see 364. For necessary words omitted, see 365. For necessary ideas omitted, see 366. For primerlike sentences, see 367.

#### Ineffective

#### Effective

##### NECESSARY WORDS OMITTED

Have not yet received the films promised arrive yesterday.

*I have not yet received the films that, you promised, would arrive yesterday.*

Write what repairs needed and utensils lacking.

*Write me what repairs are needed and what utensils are lacking.*

##### NECESSARY IDEAS OMITTED

The links are well laid out, but the club has not enough money.

*The links are well laid out, but the club has not enough money to keep them in good condition.*

Whole communities in China were starving because the fashions changed.

*Whole communities in China were starving because, when fashions changed, there was no longer a market for hair-nets.*

##### PRIMERLIKE SENTENCES

The colonel was an exceptionally fast polo-player. He had learned the game in India. It is a very popular game there.

*The colonel, who had learned to play polo in India, where the sport is very popular, played an exceptionally fast game.*

**Correct undue brevity in these sentences.**

1. Goods shipped freight. Notify when received and what condition. Shipment beyond dock your risk.
2. On the way north we must have passed Mt. Rainier, but a forest fire had been burning.
3. Pack trains used to make regular trips into the desert from this town, but now the railroad has come.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 15 (CONTINUED)

4. A pole is first planted firmly in the harbor bottom. It should be placed about twenty-five feet beyond the low-water line. It should stand three feet higher than the water at high tide. To the top of it should be fastened a pulley. Another pole is planted on the shore. It should stand well above the high-water line. Its height should be about six feet. A double pulley is fastened to the top of it. An endless rope is then run through both pulleys. A loop of it hangs down from the double pulley on the shore pole. This loop can be fastened to a cleat on the pole. The rope is made endless by means of a long splice. A short line is tied to a point on this endless rope. It dangles down to the water. To this line the skiff is attached. The skiff can be hauled in and out by means of the endless rope. The rope can be kept out of the water if the loop from the double pulley is pulled down and fastened at the cleat.
5. Typing sent unsatisfactory. Recopy with changes indicated. Bill paid when satisfactory.
6. The registration at the university was smaller than usual, because crops had failed.
7. The cooling system is composed of the radiator, the water-jacket, the pump, and connecting pipes and hose. The water-jacket is a hollow metal shell surrounding the engine cylinders. Water flows through the jacket. The heat of the engine heats the water. Then the hot water flows up through a hose to the top of the radiator. The radiator consists of small copper tubes ; they are placed vertically. The water drops down through these tubes. On the way it is cooled by air from a revolving fan. The fan is situated just behind the radiator. The cooled water is piped to a pump. Power from the crank-shaft works the pump automatically. The pump forces the water up to the water-jacket. There it is reheated by the engine. The process of circulation is then repeated. In this way the hot cylinders of the engine are kept sufficiently cool.
8. We expected to get home by seven o'clock at the very latest, but we had only one spare tire.
9. The game would have started on time if we had not had a brass band in new uniforms.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 16

### Do Sentences Contain Too Much?

**Principle.** Undue sentence length, whether resulting from tautology, wordiness, diffuseness, or rambling aimlessness, should be avoided.

**Material.** For tautology, see 368. For wordiness, see 369. For diffuseness, see 370. For aimlessly rambling sentences, see 371.

#### Ineffective

#### Effective

##### TAUTOLOGY

When do you expect to return back?

His bachelor uncle was miserly and loath to spend money.

When do you expect to return?

His bachelor uncle was miserly.

##### WORDINESS

Never before, in all my life, had I had occasion to be the recipient of such lavish entertainment.

Never before had I been entertained so lavishly.

##### DIFFUSENESS

If a player is late for any of the many reasons that may delay attendance, such as being too lazy to hurry, or having a breakdown, or even, as sometimes happens, forgetting the engagement altogether, the officials who have charge of the tournament and are responsible for carrying out the program usually give him fifteen minutes' grace before declaring that he has defaulted the match and that his opponent is as much the victor as if the match had actually taken place.

If, for any reason, a player is late, the officials usually give him fifteen minutes' grace before declaring that he has defaulted the match.



## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 16 (CONTINUED)

### RAMBLING AIMLESSNESS

After collecting at the hotel the supplies that we had bought, we wanted to pay our bill and be off, but we were not able to do this, because the clerk was temporarily absent, the bell boy being sick and an important telegram having arrived which had to be delivered to the manager, who was then at his home a few blocks down the street.

After collecting at the hotel the supplies that we had bought, we wanted to pay our bill and be off. This we were unable to do, however, because the clerk was temporarily absent. He had been obliged, in place of the bell boy, who was sick, to deliver an important telegram to the manager, who was then at his home a few blocks down the street.

**Correct the undue length of these sentences.**

1. As one evening followed another, Miles devoted himself with unflinching energy to his studies in the solitude of his own room.
2. When he had reached the ripe age of seventy, Senator Ellis made the resolve that he would turn his attention to the composition of the autobiography of his own life.
3. In those waters the tides, which flowed in and out of the sound twice a day, ran very swiftly, more swiftly, of course, at certain times of the month than at others, and so the sailing could hardly be called ideal, for if a sailboat was far from home and the wind died down while the tide was running out, it was difficult, if not impossible, to get home the same night, even with the help of oars, and rowing at best is very tiring.
4. The entire party had to walk back the whole distance that they had gone, which was twenty-five miles, and when they arrived they found that four of the horses that had stampered had already returned to their stable, but the one which Mr. Thompson had lent them was still missing, and they felt worse about that because the horse was his owner's favorite, and it was questionable whether he would ever be found in that wild country, in which there was but the one trail on which they had gone and no houses for many, many miles around.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 17

### Is Compactness Achieved through Subordination?

**Principle.** Putting subordinate sentence material into subordinate grammatical constructions brings about compact sentences in which emphasis is concentrated upon important material.

**Material.** For emphasis through subordination, see 372.

#### Ineffective

#### Effective

##### CHANGING A PRINCIPAL TO A SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

*There had been no rain for six weeks, but yet the wells were still full.*

The major was now to see real action at last, *and it was what he had been longing for.*

*Though there had been no rain for six weeks, the wells were still full.*

The major, *who had been longing for real action,* was now to see it at last.

##### CHANGING A SUBORDINATE CLAUSE TO A PHRASE

Next to the dining-hall was the library, *which was now used as a billiard-room.*

The poor old dictionary was tattered and dog-eared *because it had been so much used.*

Next to the dining-hall was the library, *now used as a billiard-room.*

The poor old dictionary had become, *through hard usage,* tattered and dog-eared.

##### CHANGING A CLAUSE TO AN APPOSITIVE

*Dr. Sanderson was a famous hunter of big game,* and he still longed for Africa.

*The niblick is a heavy, iron-headed club,* and it is used to loft a ball that lies in a bunker.

*Dr. Sanderson, a famous hunter of big game,* still longed for Africa.

*The niblick, a heavy, iron-headed club,* is used to loft a ball that lies in a bunker.

##### CHANGING A VERBAL PHRASE TO A PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

The next year the company rewarded his useful services *by electing him to a position on the board of directors.*

The next year the company rewarded his useful services *with a directorship.*

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 17 (CONTINUED)

Through those weeks I used to haunt the stage entrances, *hoping to catch a glimpse of some distinguished actor or actress.*

Through those weeks I used to haunt the stage entrances *for a glimpse of some distinguished actor or actress.*

**By using the principle of subordination, improve the emphasis of each sentence.**

1. I had never been in love ; therefore how could I be expected to know what love was like ?
2. Accidents were becoming numerous, and so the directors of the railroad decided that they would depress all tracks below the level of the streets.
3. The chief soon reached the flaming house, and as soon as he reached it he saw that all his efforts should be directed to saving the adjoining property.
4. The waitresses and porters at the hotel were for the most part college students who needed to make a little money, and by working at the hotel they were helping to pay their expenses for the next year in college, and they had a good time while they were doing it.
5. The new mayor took seriously the duties of the office to which he had just been elected ; so he first made a study of how the various departments of the city government were organized and operated, and thus he decided what improvements ought to be made and what it would be wisest to attempt first.
6. They were stationed first at Verdun, where the famous action had taken place the year before, in which the Germans had captured certain strongholds and then lost them, and then captured and lost them again, while the fighting was furious, but now it was a quiet sector and there were no really serious attacks from either side, but there was desultory action that was constantly going on.
7. One might think that the men who work in construction camps do not get good food, but this is not the case, for the managers find that if the men are to work well they must have plenty of good food, and so they provide quantities of the best provisions that the markets afford, and make a point of having good cooks to prepare the meals.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 18

### Is Subordination Logical?

**Principle.** A logically principal statement should ordinarily be expressed in a principal clause, and a logically subordinate statement in a subordinate construction, and not *vice versa*.

**Material.** For logical subordination, see 373.

#### Ineffective

#### Effective

##### PRINCIPAL STATEMENT IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

We reached our camp just at sunset, <i>when the thunderstorm broke.</i>	Just as we reached our camp at sunset, <i>the thunderstorm broke.</i>
-------------------------------------------------------------------------	-----------------------------------------------------------------------

##### PRINCIPAL STATEMENT IN SUBORDINATE PHRASE

The poison oak caused his face to swell, <i>making it look like a potato.</i>	The <i>swelling</i> caused by the poison oak <i>made his face look like a potato.</i>
-------------------------------------------------------------------------------	---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

By recasting these sentences, put the emphasis where it logically belongs.

1. There has been a campaign against roadside advertising, with the result that disfiguring signs are disappearing from our highways.
2. The car went straight for a tree, which it hit, being smashed.
3. I had fallen again into a comfortable sleep, when the tent fell down once more.
4. One day my uncle made dough with insecticide instead of baking powder, baked it, and ate the biscuits, which nearly killed him.
5. The breeze was freshening, in consequence of which fact we decided to take in two reefs in the mainsail.
6. The new governor did not take office until the first day of July, when his troubles began.
7. There had been heavy frosts, though they had come too late to damage the crops seriously.
8. The powder was thus added to the mixture of chemicals, when an explosion took place.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 19

### Is Emphasis Achieved through Sentence Order?

**Principle.** Emphasis, under appropriate circumstances, may be achieved by means of (1) transposed order, (2) periodic structure, or (3) balanced structure.

**Material.** For emphasis through transposed order, see 374. For emphasis through periodic structure, see 375. For emphasis through balanced structure, see 376.

#### Ineffective

#### TRANSPPOSED ORDER

The captain cried "*Halt!*" in a ringing voice.

#### Effective

"*Halt!*" cried the captain in a ringing voice.

#### PERIODIC STRUCTURE

Many more people are coming to the lake each year, and this winter a large hotel is being erected on its shores.

So many more people are coming to the lake each year that this winter a large hotel is being erected on its shores.

#### BALANCED STRUCTURE

Martin was interested in sports, but books and concerts were the only things his brother cared for.

Martin was interested in sports, but his brother cared only for books and concerts.

**By recasting each sentence, improve its emphasis.**

1. His stories of his secret-service work during the World War were most thrilling of all.
2. I threw my line into the water, and the same instant I felt it give a sharp tug.
3. He raced away like a shot out of a gun, without waiting to hear further particulars.
4. The first horse that I owned, given me by my father, was small and gentle, but I picked out the next one myself, and chose a mettlesome, rangy horse.
5. I will never again give a lift to a tramp on a lonely road.
6. Most men have to learn from experience, but intuition seems to teach women much of what they know.

## RHETORICAL PROBLEM 20

### Are Sentences Varied?

**Principle.** In the interest of pleasingly varied sentences, the repeated use of the same system of modifiers or of sentences having the same structure is to be avoided.

**Material.** For varied sentences, see 377.

#### Ineffective

#### Effective

##### SAME SYSTEM OF MODIFIERS

A <i>fat, jolly</i> man sat fishing at the end of the <i>shaky, narrow</i> wharf with two <i>small, ragged</i> boys.	At the end of the <i>shaky</i> wharf a <i>fat, jolly</i> man sat with a couple of <i>ragged</i> youngsters, fishing.
----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

##### SENTENCES HAVING THE SAME STRUCTURE

On our left sat two giggling girls. In front of us a large woman held a fretful child on her lap. Directly behind us four college students were talking in loud whispers. At the rear of the theater the doors were constantly opening and shutting.	Two girls sat giggling on our left, and in front of us a large woman held on her lap a fretful child. Loud whispers came from four college boys directly behind us. At the rear of the theater the doors were constantly opening and shutting.
------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

Revise these sentences, bringing variety into the structure of them.

1. A large, dark hawk was sailing in wide, sweeping curves over the broad, green valley.
2. The horses were of different colors, but were otherwise well matched. Tatya was less experienced than her mate, but gave promise of doing her full share of the work.
3. *The Leader*, an alert, vigorous, enterprising newspaper, ably served the young, prosperous, growing town.
4. The crowd kept pouring into the bleachers, scrambling hastily for their seats. Venders made their way about, selling programs and pennants and candy. Some of the home team were already on the field, tossing the ball from one to another. The battery could be seen just under the bleachers, warming up for the contest ahead.

## Reference Material

GRAMMATICAL MATERIAL · PUNCTUATION MATERIAL · RHETORICAL MATERIAL · MATTERS OF FORM





# Grammatical Material

## PRELIMINARY DEFINITIONS

### Grammar

**1. What Grammar Is.** *Grammar* is the science that deals with the correct use of language. Its field is usually understood to include three divisions: (1) parts of speech, or the classification of words according to function; (2) inflections, or changes in the form of words; and (3) syntax, or the interrelationships of words and word groups.

**2. Grammar as a Historical Development.** That English is a living language is shown by the fact that its vocabulary is undergoing constant growth and change. Grammatical usages also are subject to constant, though slower, change. Anyone who wishes to have a complete understanding of his own language must study the whole subject of present-day usage in the light of its historical development. To present the materials for so comprehensive a study is not, however, the purpose of this book. Its purpose is rather to set forth only what a writer of the present day needs to know if he is to write correctly and effectively.

**3. Practical Uses of Grammar.** There are three ways in which a working knowledge of English grammar is practically helpful to anyone engaged in writing.

1. Such a knowledge helps him to choose between correct and incorrect methods of expression. What correct usage means is explained in 4.

2. The primary purpose of punctuation is to make clear to the reader, as inflections of the voice make clear to the

hearer, how words and word groups perform their functions. Many of the principles of punctuation can best be explained in terms of grammatical concepts.

3. Rhetoric (335) is the science of the effective use of language. In the consideration of effectiveness in sentences, grammatical concepts are tools that need constantly to be used.

4. **What Determines Correct Usage.** In any given period, different people have different ways of expressing themselves in language. Those who are ignorant or careless adopt unconsciously whatever forms of speech they are accustomed to hear. Those who are educated and careful choose the forms of speech that are used by other educated and careful persons. The grammarian, in his turn, studies these latter forms of speech and sets them forth as systematically as is possible. He does not claim authority to determine what, in his judgment, correct usage ought to be. Correct usage is determined for him, as for everybody else, by the actual practice of cultivated speakers and writers. This is the standard to which, it is assumed, every ambitious student wishes to conform.

Before the student can profitably approach the practical problems of usage in English, he requires some knowledge of the various functions that words and word groups may perform.

### Function

5. **What Function Is.** The function of a word is its grammatical use in a sentence. Unless a word stands in a sentence, it has no grammatical use and therefore no function. Standing by itself, the word *head* has no function. In the sentence *Their names head the list*, however, it asserts something about *their names*; and in performing this function it takes on a certain meaning. In the sen-

tence *He hurt his head*, the word *head* makes possible a complete assertion by telling what he hurt, and in so doing the word takes on a different meaning. The function, then, may help to establish the meaning, but the function is not the meaning. In the sentences *Their names head the list* and *Their names end the list*, the words *head* and *end* have opposite meanings but the same function, that of asserting.

Because there are eight different functions that words can perform, words are divided into eight parts of speech. When it is said, therefore, that a given word belongs to a certain part of speech, it is meant that the word may perform the function of that part of speech when it is used in a sentence. Most words can perform only one function. For words such as *head*, however, that can perform one function in one sentence and another function in a different sentence, see 29.

**6. The Word as a Unit of Function.** Each word that is written separately has unity of form. In most cases a word having unity of form has unity of function as well.

Despite warnings, he went on.

In this sentence each of the five words has its separate function to perform. But now compare the following sentence:

*In spite of warnings, he had gone on.*

Here *in spite of* performs the same function that a single word, *despite*, performs in the other sentence; and *had gone* performs the same function as *went*, in the other sentence. *In spite of*, therefore, has unity of function though not of form. Grammatically it is a single word; so is *had gone*.

**7. Compound Words.** A word thus composed of two or more words is a *Compound Word*. In certain cases the elements composing a compound word are written separately

(*because of, as soon as, has been seen*); in others hyphens are used between them (*heart-whole, four-way, father-in-law*). Many words that were originally compound are now written without hyphens (*baseball, downright, overpower*). For a special treatment of this subject, see 407-414.

**8. Contractions.** Two words separate in form and function are sometimes telescoped so as to appear as one word. The result is a contraction, in which the apostrophe stands for the omitted letters.

do not, don't      does not, doesn't      he will, he'll

### Parts of Speech

**9. The Eight Parts of Speech.** The eight parts of speech may be conveniently grouped as follows:

- |                                            |                |
|--------------------------------------------|----------------|
| 1. Nouns                                   | } Substantives |
| 2. Pronouns                                |                |
| 3. Verbs: Asserting Words                  |                |
| 4. Adjectives                              | } Modifiers    |
| 5. Adverbs                                 |                |
| 6. Prepositions                            | } Connectives  |
| 7. Conjunctions                            |                |
| 8. Interjections: Words Expressing Emotion |                |

**10. The Noun: Definition.** A *Noun* is a word that names.

Dan Julius Cæsar night beauty sickness Niagara Falls

Any word, any letter, or any symbol becomes a noun when it is used as a name.

The *ll* in *parallel* comes in the middle of the word.

Last term I received four +'s and one -.

For verbal nouns, such as *rowing*, see 17.

For a more complete treatment of the noun, see 128-137.

**11. The Pronoun: Definition.** A *Pronoun* is a word used instead of a noun.

Dick said that the judge *who* told *him* is dead.

Why do *these* cost less than *those*?

*I* [Ben Folsom] thought that *you* [Frank Carter] knew.

*Nobody* suspected *anything*.

It will be noticed that the meaning of a pronoun may depend upon some noun that precedes it. Thus, in the first sentence given above, the meaning of *who* is supplied by *judge*, and that of *him* by *Dick*. The meanings of *these* and *those* are supplied in speech by the gesture of pointing. The meanings of *I* and *you* depend upon who is speaking to whom. The meanings of *nobody* and *anything* are obviously indefinite.

For pronominal adjectives, see 20.

For a complete treatment of the pronoun, see 138-175.

**12. The Substantive.** Any noun or pronoun, or any word or word group fulfilling the function of noun or pronoun, may be referred to as a *Substantive*.

**13. The Verb: Definition.** A *Verb* is a word that asserts. Usually a verb asserts by stating, but even if it is used for asking or for commanding, it may still be said to assert. Thus, in the sentences *He stops*, *Who stopped?* and *Stop*, the words *stops*, *stopped*, and *stop* are all considered words that assert.

Verbs assert action or being. Action may be vigorous and positive, as in the verbs *jump*, *swim*, or mildly assertive, as in the verbs *wish*, *have*. Being may be asserted by forms of the verb *be*, such as *am*, *is*, *was*, *were*, or by a few other words, such as *seem*, *appear*.

For a more complete treatment of the verb, see 32-49 and 176-217.

**14. The Verb-Phrase.** A verb may be a single word, like *saw* or *was*, or it may be a word group, like *had seen* or *would have been*. Such a word group is called a *Verb-Phrase*.

**15. The Verbal in a Verb-Phrase.** The part of a verb-phrase that expresses action or being is called a *Verbal*, or a *Nonmodal Form*. Though a verbal does not of itself actually assert, it implies action or being. Thus, in the verb-phrase *had seen*, *seen* is the word that implies action, the same action that the verb *saw* actually asserts; and in the verb-phrase *would have been*, *been* is the word that implies being, just as the verb *was* actually asserts it.

For other ways in which verbals may be used, see 50 and 222-230.

**16. The Auxiliary in a Verb-Phrase.** Any word that is joined with a verbal to make up a verb-phrase is an *Auxiliary*, or a "helping" verb. The verbs *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would*, *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, *must*, and *ought* are always auxiliaries; and forms of the verbs *be* (*am*, *is*, *was*, *were*, *been*, etc.), *have* (*has*, *had*, etc.), and *do* (*does*, *did*, etc.) are often used as auxiliaries.

That there may be one or more than one auxiliary in a verb-phrase may be seen by comparing the following sentences:

He *was told* yesterday.

He *has been told* already.

He *should have been told* yesterday.

That the words making up a verb-phrase may either stand side by side or be separated may be seen by comparing the following sentences:

He *does know* it.

*Does he know* it?

Why *should he not have been told*?

For a more complete treatment of auxiliaries, see 188-190.

**17. The Verbal Noun: the Gerund and the Infinitive.** There are verbals that do not help to form verb-phrases. A word that implies action and at the same time performs the function of a noun is a *Verbal Noun*.

A verbal noun ending in *ing* is called a *Gerund*. Thus, in the sentence *Rowing strengthens the back*, the word *rowing*, ending in *ing*, implies action and at the same time names something; it is called a gerund.

For a more complete treatment of the gerund, see 219, 223, and 229.

A verbal noun preceded by the sign *to* is called an *Infinitive*. Thus, in the sentence *I learned to row*, the word *row*, with its sign *to*, implies action and at the same time names something; it is an infinitive. Sometimes the infinitive performs other functions besides that of naming (50).

For a more complete treatment of the infinitive, see 219, 223, and 230.

**18. The Modifier.** A *Modifier* is a word or a word group that is used to make the meaning of another word or word group more precise than it would otherwise be. Modifiers are either adjectives or adverbs.

**19. The Adjective: Definition.** An *Adjective* is a word that modifies a substantive (noun or pronoun). Some adjectives modify by describing. Thus, in the sentence *Tumbledown little shacks lined the street*, *tumbledown* and *little* are descriptive adjectives modifying the noun *shacks*. Some adjectives modify by limiting. Thus, in the sentence *Those four shacks have been condemned*, *those* and *four* are limiting adjectives modifying the noun *shacks*.

The words *a*, *an*, and *the* are classed as adjectives, but are usually called *Articles* to distinguish them from other adjectives.

For a more complete treatment of the adjective, see 60-63 and 237-248.

**20. The Pronominal Adjective.** Certain pronominal forms (11) may be used not only in place of nouns but also as adjectives modifying nouns. Thus, in the following

pairs of sentences the italicized words are used twice, first as pronouns and then as *Pronominal Adjectives*:

*These* have been sold.

*These* rugs have been sold.

*Which* have been sold?

*Which* rugs have been sold?

*Each* has been sold.

*Each* rug has been sold.

For possessives, which also function as adjectives do, see 62.

**21. The Verbal Adjective: the Participle.** A word that implies action and at the same time performs the function of an adjective is a *Verbal Adjective*, or a *Participle*. The present participle ends in *ing*. Thus, in the sentence *The rising river flooded the streets*, the word *rising* implies action and at the same time modifies the substantive *river*; it is a participle. In the sentence *Having risen early, he had time to water the garden*, the participle *having risen* modifies the substantive *he*.

For a more complete treatment of the participle, see 219, 223-224, 228, and 232.

**22. The Adverb: Definition.** An *Adverb* is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Many adverbs modify by telling *how*, *when*, *where*, or *how much*.

How adverbs modify verbs may be illustrated by means of the verb *ran* in the sentence *The car ran*. Ran how? *Noiselessly; swiftly; smoothly*. Ran when? *Always; all day; yesterday*. Ran where? *There; back*. Ran how much? *Little; far*.

How adverbs modify adjectives may be illustrated by means of the adjective *warm* in the sentence *The day was warm*. Warm how, or in what way? *Pleasantly; uncomfortably*. Warm how much? *Very; moderately; too*.



How adverbs modify adverbs may be illustrated by means of the adverb *uncomfortably* in the sentence *The day was uncomfortably warm*. How much? *Most; rather; not*.

For a more complete treatment of the adverb, see 249-266.

**23. The Preposition: Definition.** The *Preposition* is a word placed normally before a substantive to show its relation to some other word in the sentence. Common prepositions are *above, after, at, by, down, for, in, of, on, to, up, because of, in front of*.

The way in which prepositions show relationship may be seen by comparing the following sentences:

The boats were headed *up* the river.

The boats were headed *down* the river.

Compare also the relation of the substantives *him* and *me* to the verb *were reserved* in the following sentences:

Tickets were reserved *by* me *for* him.

Tickets were reserved *for* me *by* him.

For a more complete treatment of the preposition, see 68 and 267-272.

**24. The Conjunction: Definition.** A *Conjunction* is a word that connects words or groups of words. Conjunctions are divided into two classes: coördinating conjunctions (including correlative conjunctions) and subordinating conjunctions. A coördinating conjunction joins grammatical units of equal grammatical value (99-100). The units joined by a subordinating conjunction are of unequal grammatical value.

**25. The Coördinating Conjunction.** The *Coördinating Conjunctions* that are used singly are *and, but, or, nor*. That they may join words or groups of words is illustrated in section 276. Similar conjunctions used in pairs (*both—and, either—or, etc.*) are called *Correlative Conjunctions* (274).

For the classification of *for*, see 278.

**26. The Subordinating Conjunction.** A *Subordinating Conjunction* joins a subordinate clause (83) to the clause on which it depends. Important examples of this class are *although (though), as if, as though, because, if, in order that, lest, since, so that, than, that, unless, whether*.

We are perfectly safe *if* the rope doesn't break.

We couldn't mail the package *because* it was too bulky.

Nobody realized *that* his collar-bone was broken.

**27. The Conjunction and the Connective.** Not every connective is a conjunction. Other types of connectives are prepositions (23), adverbial connectives (265), relative pronouns (155), and relative adverbs (252).

For a more complete treatment of the conjunction, see 273-280.

**28. The Interjection: Definition.** An *Interjection* is a word or word group used as an exclamation expressing emotion. Typical interjections are *Oh! Hurrah! Ouch!*

The key, *alas*, was lost.

*Good gracious!* What was that?

**29. Part of Speech Determined by Function.** A word that can be used in one sentence as one part of speech and in another as another part of speech is not to be considered one word having more than one use: each separate use means a separate word. Thus, in the sentences *Iron is cheap, It was in an iron box, and They iron the clothes*, the single form *iron* appears as three words, a noun, an adjective, and a verb. The student who tries to interpret these words by determining which came earliest into the language confuses himself and others to no purpose. It is, for example, merely confusing to say of *iron*, as used in the third of the sentences given above, that it is "a noun used as a verb": it is both true and helpful to say simply that it is a verb.

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 1-29

### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. What does grammatical function mean? Illustrate.
2. In the sentences *Exercise is beneficial* and *They exercise too hard*, what is the difference between the functions of the word *exercise*?
3. In the sentence *He lives in a stone house*, substitute for the word *stone* a word having the same function but another meaning.
4. Why may *in front of* be regarded grammatically as a single word? Justify the answer by means of the sentence *He stood in front of me*.
5. In the sentence *They don't know*, how many words are there to account for grammatically? Which are they?
6. In the sentence *The 1 in the address looked like a 7*, which are the nouns?
7. In the sentence *I do not know the man whom you described to me*, which words are substantives? Which are pronouns?
8. In the sentence *He would have been noticed if he had been in this town*, illustrate verb-phrase, verbal, and auxiliary.
9. In the sentence *Looking back furtively, he was sneaking down the path*, what verbals are found, and what function does each perform?
10. In the sentences *He didn't like automobiles*, *He didn't like driving*, and *He didn't like to drive*, what have the words after *like* in common, and how do they differ?
11. In the sentence *Two black crows flew by*, what is the function of *two* and *black*? In what different ways do they perform their function?
12. In the sentences *It was a noiseless motor* and *The motor ran noiselessly*, illustrate the function of a modifier and the difference between two types of modifiers.
13. In the sentences *This is cheaper* and *This edition is cheaper*, the word *this* serves two functions. What are they? Show how *which* may similarly serve two functions.

14. In the sentences *Happy in his work, he made a success of it* and *Enjoying his work, he made a success of it*, what function do the words *happy* and *enjoying* have in common? In what way do the words differ?

15. In the sentence *Yesterday he worked here steadily*, what words are adverbs, and what question does each answer?

16. In the sentences *He worked hard*, *The work he did was very hard*, and *He worked far too hard*, what part of speech does each of the adverbs modify?

17. Illustrate the function of the preposition in the sentences *He stood by me*, *He stood behind me*, and *Whom did he stand behind?*

18. In the sentences *He fell down* and *He fell down the shaft*, explain the difference in the function of *down*.

19. In the sentences *He fished and hunted* and *He fished much and he hunted a little*, what units are joined by the conjunction *and*?

20. In the sentences *He fished long but unsuccessfully* and *He fished long, although he caught nothing*, are the conjunctions of the same kind? Why?

21. In the sentences *My barometer has fallen rapidly* and *My! How rapidly the barometer has fallen!* what different functions has the word *my*?

22. Can the word *stone* be used as a noun? as a verb? as an adjective? as an adverb?

#### EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Parts of Speech.** What is the part of speech of each word in the following sentences? Explain the function of each.

[EXAMPLE. *Several canoes passed us.* *Several* is an adjective because it is a modifier of the substantive *canoes*; *canoes* is a noun because it names; etc.]

1. I fastened the rope securely, because a storm threatened.
2. If you hear any strange sound, notify me immediately.

3. Ah! This is a room which really pleases me.
4. Lawson mailed the letter in the post office, but it never arrived.
5. The car was much too old for use on hard trips.
6. A hammer and a handful of old nails served the purpose admirably.

**Substantives.** Which are the substantives in the following sentences, and what kind of substantive is each? If the substantive is a pronoun, is its meaning supplied by another word in the sentence?

[EXAMPLE. *Of those who applied, only Tom was accepted.* *Those* is a pronoun; *who* is a pronoun, the meaning of which is supplied by *those*; etc.]

1. Tell me who gave the address to you.
2. The S which he had written looked like an L.
3. Frank, who told me about the car, has often driven it.
4. Nobody told us what the plans for the day were.
5. The thing that attracted them most was the low price.
6. If anybody wants the book, send him to me this week.

**Verbs.** Which are the verbs or the verb-phrases in the following sentences? In the verb-phrases, which are the verbals, and which are the auxiliaries?

[EXAMPLE. *Where was he seen?* *Was seen* is a verb-phrase consisting of the verbal (participle) *seen* and the auxiliary *was*.]

1. If he sent a telegram, I should have received it.
2. They may have left the station before we arrived.
3. What could she have been told, do you suppose?
4. Why could it not have been sent by express?
5. When did he say that he could not possibly go?
6. They should not have gone if they did not like talkies.

**Modifiers.** Which are the modifiers in the following sentences? What is the word modified by each, and what is its part of speech?

[EXAMPLE. *He has almost recovered.* *Almost* is an ad-  
verb modifying the verb *has recovered*.]

1. Jones always worked hard here.
2. Her mother is now almost always happy.
3. He seems so very vigorous that we scarcely know him.
4. I was more desperately weary than anybody ever suspected.
5. He has just recently heard from his very dearest friend.
6. His letters are far too intimate to be read publicly.

**Connectives.** Which are the prepositions in the following sentences, and to what words are they related? Which are the conjunctions, and what do they join or introduce?

[EXAMPLE. *He applied by letter, but was refused.* *By* is a  
preposition relating *letter* to *applied*; *but* is a conjunc-  
tion joining *applied* and *was refused*.]

1. The tellers in the bank were besieged by throngs of men and women.
2. He paused and searched through his pockets for a bunch of keys.
3. The worst of the matter was that nobody knew or cared.
4. If she could write to him in French, all would be well; but she can not.
5. He wasn't at his house nor was he at school when I telephoned.
6. I waited, because I was sure that he would come to my point of view in time.
7. Since the boys of the party were tired of traveling, we stopped by the river and camped.
8. Come before eight o'clock if you can, and we can have a chat before the others arrive.

## TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow :

[EXAMPLE. *Verb-phrase*: The garage *had not been* *burned*.]

- |                                  |                                      |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. A compound word               | 15. An article                       |
| 2. A contraction                 | 16. A pronominal adjective           |
| 3. A noun                        | 17. A participle                     |
| 4. A symbol used as a name       | 18. An adverb modifying a verb       |
| 5. A pronoun                     | 19. An adverb modifying an adjective |
| 6. A verb of action              | 20. An adverb modifying an adverb    |
| 7. A verb of being               | 21. A preposition                    |
| 8. A verb-phrase                 | 22. A coördinating conjunction       |
| 9. A participle in a verb-phrase | 23. A subordinating conjunction      |
| 10. An auxiliary                 | 24. An interjection                  |
| 11. A gerund                     |                                      |
| 12. An infinitive                |                                      |
| 13. A descriptive adjective      |                                      |
| 14. A limiting adjective         |                                      |

## NECESSARY PARTS IN A GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE

### Grammatical Relationships

**30. Grammatical Structure.** Though a sentence appears at first glance to be merely a series of words strung together, examination shows that certain words are specially related to certain other words to form word groups. These word groups, in turn, are related to other words or to other word groups. The entire sentence is thus seen to consist of interrelated parts; it has what is called *grammatical Structure*.

Further study shows that certain words, so related as to make an assertion, are necessary to a grammatically complete sentence. Other words and word groups, on the other hand, may be used to elaborate the assertion upon which the complete grammatical unit is built. The relationships of the necessary words will be examined first.

**31. The Simplest Grammatical Structure.** The words that make possible a grammatically complete assertion form by themselves a grammatical structure of the simplest kind. Indeed, these words alone are capable of forming a short sentence. Because of this fact, the words that form such a structure may be thought of as a *Framework* upon which, if desired, an elaborate grammatical unit may be built up. A unit based upon a framework may constitute a sentence; or such a unit may be combined with one or more other units to form a sentence. Whatever the type of sentence, the first problem of analysis is to find the framework or frameworks upon which the entire sentence is constructed.



## Elements of Grammatical Structure

**32. The Word That Asserts: the Verb.** Every framework is built upon a verb, the main word used in making an assertion (13). The verb may consist of one word or of a verb-phrase (14). If it consists of a verb-phrase, every part must be present: neither an auxiliary without its verbal (16) nor a verbal without its auxiliary (15) is a verb.

**33. The Subject of the Verb.** Every verb making an assertion requires a *Subject*, a substantive indicating the person or thing of which the assertion is made.

*Henry spoke.*

*I should have answered.*

Although the subject normally precedes its verb, in some sentences the subject follows its verb. In either case a sure way of finding the subject is to repeat the verb with the words *who* or *what* before it.

The next instant the boat struck the reef with a crash.

**Struck.** Who or what struck? *Boat* struck. *Boat* is the subject.

To the left of the factory stood the manager's house.

**Stood.** Who or what stood? *House* stood. *House* is the subject.

There are only three possible answers to the question.

**Are.** Who or what are? *Answers* are. *Answers* is the subject.

It should be noted that verbs that assert by commanding have their subjects understood, though not expressed.

Come to me this instant.

**Come.** Who or what come? *You* [understood] come.

For the case of the subject, see 124.

**34. Simple Subject and Simple Predicate.** The substantive that is the subject of a verb is sometimes called the *Simple Subject* (or the *Subject Substantive*), to distinguish it from the complete subject (80).

**Simple Subject:** The *captain* of our team was injured.

Similarly, the verb alone is sometimes called the *Simple Predicate* (or *Predicate Verb*), to distinguish it from the complete predicate (80).

**Simple Predicate:** He *was* seriously *injured* by a fall.

**35. Complete and Incomplete Verbs.** A comparison of verbs shows that some are capable, with their subjects, of expressing complete thoughts, whereas others leave the thought hanging until some other word, necessary to complete the thought, is added.

#### Complete Verbs

I slept.  
She walked.  
Trees grew.

#### Incomplete Verbs

He killed [bears].  
Joe was [a coward].  
She seemed [weary].

**36. The Complete Verb.** A verb that does not require another word to complete the meaning is called a *Complete Verb*. *Sleep, walk, grow* are complete verbs.

### Types of Grammatical Structure

**37. Type I: Subject and Verb.** When subject and verb make a grammatically complete assertion, the framework (31) is of *Type I*. The verb in most frameworks of this type is a complete verb (36) in the active voice (214).

All the *ink* from the bottle *flowed* over the table.

In other frameworks of the same type, the verb is a transitive verb (38) in the passive voice (215).

All the *ink* from the bottle *had been spilled* over the table.

**38. The Transitive Verb and Its Object.** Of the incomplete verbs, some are called transitive verbs. A *Transitive Verb* is a verb of action completed by a substantive that names the receiver of the action or the person or thing

affected by the action. Such a substantive is called the *Object* of the verb.

He *killed* [transitive verb] his *engine* [object].

The word *transitive*, meaning "passing over," is used because the action is thought of as passing over from the subject, the doer of the action, to the object, the receiver of the action. (Any verb that is not transitive, that is, any complete verb or any linking verb, may be referred to as an *intransitive verb*.)

Wherever the object of a verb may stand in a sentence, it can be found by repeating the verb with the words *whom* or *what* after it.

Peter knew him at once by his peculiar gait.

**Knew.** Knew whom or what? Knew *him*. *Him* is the object.

He told everything that he knew.

**Told.** Told whom or what? Told *everything*. *Everything* is the object.

**Knew.** Knew whom or what? Knew *that*. *That* is the object.

For the case of the object of a verb, see 125.

Note that a word that answers some other question, like *when*, *where*, etc., is not the object of the verb. Thus, consider the following sentence:

Mother will probably come *home tomorrow*.

The word *home* answers the question *Will come where*, and the word *tomorrow* answers the question *Will come when*; therefore neither *home* nor *tomorrow* is an object of the verb. *Will come* has no object; it is complete. *Home* performs the function of an adverb (22) expressing place (125). *Tomorrow* is an adverb.

**39. Transitive vs. Complete Verbs.** Although some verbs are always complete and others are always transitive, some verbs are complete when used in one sentence and transitive when used in another. The test is this: Is there a word answering the question *whom* or *what* after the verb?

## Complete

## Transitive

There we *rested* an hour.

He *rested* his *leg* on the chair.

He always *sang* off the key.

We often *sang* *glees* of an evening.

Although exceptions to this rule sometimes occur, they are not important.

**40. Type II: Subject, Verb, Object.** When subject, transitive verb, and object make a grammatically complete assertion, the framework is of *Type II*.

*Everybody liked him* from the first.

*Whom did everybody like?*

**41. The Indirect Object.** To a framework of Type II may be added a word naming, without the use of a preposition, the one to or for whom the action is performed. Such a word, always a substantive, is called the *Indirect Object* of the verb. An indirect object may be considered an extension of a framework of Type II.

The old *man* once *told me* [to me] the whole *story*.

*Martha* often *made us* [for us] large mince *pies*.

For the case of the indirect object of the verb, see 125.

**42. The Adjunct Objective.** After certain verbs a framework of Type II may be extended by the addition of a word naming or describing the object. This word is called an *Adjunct* (or "joined") *Objective*. The adjunct objective may be either a substantive or an adjective.

We elected Edwards *captain*.

The publishers call the book a *success*.

They painted the boat *green*.

The publishers call the book *successful*.

For the case of the adjunct objective, see 125.

**43. Verb-Adverb Combinations.** If a verb and an adverb are united in what may be called a *Verb-Adverb Combination*,

that fact must determine the type of framework in which the combination occurs. The verb *wrote*, for example, may be a simple verb, as in the following sentences:

He *wrote* to his cousin.

He *wrote* in his notebook.

He *wrote* his impressions.

In the first two sentences, *wrote* is a complete verb, and the frameworks are of Type I. The prepositions *to* and *in* introduce prepositional phrases (68), and are not combined with the verb *wrote*. In the third sentence, *wrote* is transitive, its object being *impressions*, and the framework is of Type II. Compare now the following sentences:

He *wrote down* his impressions.

He *wrote in* the corrections.

He *wrote up* the meeting.

Here *wrote down*, *wrote in*, *wrote up* are verb-adverb combinations, each functioning as a transitive verb. *Wrote down* is equivalent to *wrote*, and *impressions* is the object of the combination. *Wrote in* is equivalent to *inserted*, and *corrections* is the object. *Wrote up* is equivalent to *reported*, and *meeting* is the object. *Down*, *in*, and *up*, that is, are not prepositions; they are adverbs in combination with their verbs. The frameworks in which they occur are all of Type II.

**44. The Linking Verb.** Of the incomplete verbs, those that are verbs of being are completed by words that refer to the subject. If such a completing word is a substantive that names the subject by another word, it is called a *Predicate Nominative*. If it is an adjective describing the subject, it is called a *Predicate Adjective*.

Bob Acres was a *coward*.

[Predicate nominative]

Bob Acres was *timid*.

[Predicate adjective]

A verb of being used in this manner may be thought of as linking, much as an equality-sign (=) might do, the words

that go before and after it. It is therefore called a *Linking Verb*. Each of the verbs used below has this same function :

Bob Acres  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{was} \\ \text{seemed} \\ \text{proved} \end{array} \right\}$  a coward.

The orange  $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{was} \\ \text{looked} \\ \text{tasted} \end{array} \right\}$  sour.

For adverbs incorrectly used after linking verbs, see Grammatical Problem 23.

**45. Linking Verbs vs. Nonlinking Verbs.** Forms of the verb *be* (*am, is, are, was, were, etc.*) are frequently linking verbs. It is to be noted, however, that when one of these forms is not followed by a word referring to the subject, it is a complete verb.

**Linking:** The trunk *was empty*.

**Complete:** The trunk *was* [cf. *stood*] in the attic.

Note that when a form of the verb *be* is an auxiliary (16), it is part of a verb-phrase which may or may not be a linking verb.

**Linking:** The trunk *was lying* empty.

**Nonlinking:** The trunk *was taken* to the attic.

When such verbs as *seem, look, and appear* are linking verbs, they mean *be* (*in appearance*) ; and when such verbs of the senses as *taste* and *smell* are linking verbs, they mean *be* (*in taste or in smell*). Thus, compare :

**Linking:** He *appeared* utterly weary.

**Nonlinking:** He first *appeared* in public yesterday.

**Linking:** The cold milk *tasted* delicious.

**Nonlinking:** He *tasted* the milk suspiciously.

**Linking:** The fellow *proved* [*was, in fact*] an impostor.

**Nonlinking:** The lawyer easily *proved* his case.

**46. Type III: Subject, Verb, Predicate Nominative or Predicate Adjective.** When subject, linking verb, and predicate nominative or predicate adjective make a grammatically complete assertion, the framework is of *Type III*.

*Walter always looked the conquering hero.*

*Walter, that day, was looking very glum.*

Sometimes the infinitive *to be* follows a linking verb and precedes the predicate nominative or predicate adjective. In such a sentence the verb and the infinitive may be considered the equivalent of a linking verb.

*Walter proved to be a hero.*

*Walter seemed to be glum.*

Also to be classed as a framework of Type III is one in which a substantive or adjective after a passive verb refers to the subject of the verb.

*Edward was elected captain.*

*The boat was painted green.*

*The baby was held safe in his arms.*

**47. Well or Badly after a Linking Verb.** Compare the following sentences:

*The rolls are stale, but they look good.*

*The boy is a rascal, but he looks good.*

*He looks especially good in a surplice.*

In each sentence *good* is a predicate adjective after a linking verb. In the last two sentences, it will be noticed, the adjective implies moral goodness.

Now compare the following sentences:

*He looks good in a surplice.*

*He looks well in tweeds.*

*Tweeds look well on him.*

In the second sentence *good* is called for by the rule, but *good* might imply moral goodness; so *well* is used instead.

This exceptional use of *well* accounts for the use of the same word in the third sentence.

The word *badly* may similarly be used instead of *bad* when it is desirable to avoid the implication of moral badness.

I knew I had deceived him, but I did not feel *bad*.

We all felt *badly* over his disappointment.

For the exceptional use of *well* or *badly* after a linking verb, see Grammatical Problem 23.

**48. Modifiers Differently Interpreted.** It is sometimes a matter of choice whether a modifier shall be an adverb modifying the verb or an adjective modifying the subject of the verb. Thus, both the following sentences are acceptable:

The sun *shone brightly*.

The *sun* shone *bright*.

Similarly, a modifier may sometimes be interpreted either as an adverb modifying the verb or as an adjective modifying the object. Thus, both the following sentences are acceptable:

He *had hidden* the paper *safely* in his desk.

He had hidden the *paper safe* in his desk.

**49. Compound Parts of a Framework.** Any part of a framework may be either simple or compound. All the examples in the previous sections are simple. A compound part of a framework consists of two or more words having the same function, joined by *and*, *or*, or *but*. Examples follow:

**Subject:** *Frank, Harry, and I* shared the night watch.

**Verb:** We *laughed and joked* throughout the evening.

**Object:** He always had *books or magazines* with him.

**Predicate Adjective:** The pears were *small but juicy*.

For the number of the verb after a compound subject, see Grammatical Problem 9.



## Infinitive Clauses

**50. The Infinitive Clause and Its Subject.** In the ordinary meaning of the term, a clause (70) is a word group based upon a framework; and in the framework the subject is a substantive in the nominative case and the verb is a form capable of making an assertion. In what is called an *Infinitive Clause*, the word group as a whole functions like an ordinary clause, but the parts upon which it is built differ in certain important particulars. Thus, compare the italicized words in the following sentences:

**Ordinary Clause:** I hope *that he will succeed.*

**Infinitive Clause:** I wish *him to succeed.*

In the infinitive clause, *him*, the subject, bears the same relationship to *to succeed* that in the ordinary clause *he* bears to the verb *will succeed*. In the infinitive clause, however, the subject is not *he*, in the nominative case (124), but *him*, in the objective case (125); and *to succeed*, it will be noticed, is not, like *will succeed*, a verb (13), but an infinitive. The infinitive need not be preceded by its sign *to*.

**Ordinary Clause:** I saw *that he succeeded.*

**Infinitive Clause:** I watched *him succeed.*

When the term *infinitive clause* is used, then, it will be understood that the word group functions as a clause, but that the parts that make it up differ in the ways noted.

**51. Types of Infinitive Clauses.** Infinitive clauses, like frameworks, are of three types. A clause of Type I (37) consists of subject and infinitive (of complete verb).

I asked *him to telegraph* at once.

A clause of Type II (40) consists of subject, infinitive (of transitive verb), and object.

I asked *him to telegraph his answer.*

A clause of Type III (46) consists of subject, infinitive (of linking verb), and a predicate word which, like the subject, is in the objective case (125).

I asked *him to be my guest*.

I asked *him to be ready* at four o'clock.

In an infinitive clause of Type III, the infinitive *to be* may sometimes be omitted (104).

I consider Schwartz [*to be*] thoroughly trustworthy.

### EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 30-51

#### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. To what kind of word group may the term *framework* be applied?

2. Construct a framework upon the verb *brought*. Then elaborate the thought by adding other words.

3. Construct a framework upon the verb *died*. Then elaborate the thought by adding other words.

4. Construct a framework upon the verb *seemed*. Then elaborate the thought by adding other words.

5. Can a framework be constructed upon the word *going*? upon the word *gone*? upon the word *shall*? Why?

6. In the sentence *Why should he not have gone?* what is the verb-phrase upon which the framework is constructed?

7. In the sentence *Did you read of the dreadful accident on our street?* is the word *accident* the subject of the verb? Why?

8. In the sentence *The captain of our company has a bad case of influenza,* what is the simple subject?

9. In the sentence given just above, what is the simple predicate?

10. Of the verbs *stare, drink, draw, differ, become, flee, pound, die*, which are always complete verbs?

11. On what type of framework is the following sentence constructed: *Whom did he accuse of cheating?* What words form the framework?

## Necessary Parts in a Structure Ex. 30-51

12. On what type of framework is the following sentence constructed: *Who can that bearded man to your right be?* What words form the framework?

13. On what type of framework is the following sentence constructed: *Does Dr. Dudley still live in this town?* What words form the framework?

14. On the verb *sink*, form two sentences, one having a framework of Type I, and the other having a framework of Type II.

15. On the verb *appear*, form two sentences, one having a framework of Type I, and the other having a framework of Type III.

16. On the verb *prove*, form two sentences, one having a framework of Type II, and the other having a framework of Type III.

17. *He told the judge a wholly different story. The judge considers his first story a lie.* Point out in these sentences (1) an adjunct objective and (2) an indirect object. Of what type is the framework of each sentence?

18. What is the type of infinitive clause in the following sentence: *Do you believe him to be entirely honest?*

19. What is the type of infinitive clause in the following sentence: *Whom did you ask to dine with you?*

20. What is the type of infinitive clause in the following sentence: *Whom do you want to collect tickets?*

### EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Subject and Verb.** What are the verbs, and what are their subjects, in the following sentences?

[EXAMPLE. *There were only two of us in the secret. Were* ]  
[is the verb, the word that asserts; *two* is its subject.]

1. Did you see the manager himself?
2. Tell me briefly his decision.
3. Why should he have refused you?
4. Have they found any clues yet?
5. What should we do next about the matter?
6. Near the body lay a pearl-handled revolver.

**Complete and Incomplete Verbs.** Which verbs in the following sentences are complete? Which are incomplete, and what words complete them?

[EXAMPLE. *Whom does he suspect? Suspect is an in-*  
complete verb, completed by its object, *whom*.]

1. The dog growled threateningly at the tramp.
2. The tramp, in his turn, appeared thoroughly afraid.
3. I spoke to the dog, but he took no notice.
4. After all, why should he not have been hostile?
5. A long pause ensued, while we both waited.
6. Then the tramp turned and took himself off.

**Transitive and Complete Verbs.** Which verbs in the following sentences are complete verbs? Which are transitive, and what words are their objects?

[EXAMPLE. *I can sing, but I cannot sing the tenor part.*  
The first *can sing* is complete; the second *can sing* is  
transitive, with the object *part*.]

1. We drank brackish water when we drank at all.
2. They sank the ship, but the deck load did not sink.
3. If the banks close, we must close the mills also.
4. These shoes have worn so badly that I cannot wear them any longer.
5. You can write a chapter a day if you write fast enough.
6. How did you feel when you felt the earthquake?

**Linking and Nonlinking Verbs.** Which verbs in the following sentences are linking verbs, and what words are their predicate nominatives? Which are nonlinking verbs?

[EXAMPLE. *The stranger proved to be the lawyer for the*  
*defense. Proved to be* functions as a linking verb and  
has *lawyer* for its predicate nominative.]

1. The old mother does not appear until the second act.
2. With my furry tongue, I couldn't taste anything.
3. The place soon became too hot for us.

## Necessary Parts in a Structure Ex. 30-51

4. It tasted bitter because of my furry tongue.
5. Mother appears strong, but she is really very weak.
6. Nothing else becomes you so well as sport clothes.

**Types of Frameworks.** What words form the framework in each of the following sentences, and what is the type of framework formed?

[EXAMPLE. On which side shall you place the flagstaff?  
*You, shall place, and flagstaff,* form the framework,  
which is of Type II.]

1. The library was founded years ago by the Women's Club.
2. The need for a public library seemed acute.
3. At first the members contributed their own books.
4. The first librarian served almost without salary.
5. Mr. Carnegie was sympathetic toward the struggling library.
6. In time he donated a suitable building for the enterprise.
7. For about fifteen years the building proved adequate.
8. With each year, however, the library steadily grew.
9. Finally the institution outgrew its old quarters.

**Types of Infinitive Clauses.** What words form the infinitive clause in each of the following sentences, and what is the type of framework formed?

[EXAMPLE. *He ordered his car to be ready at four o'clock.* *Car, to be, and ready* form the framework,  
which is of Type III.]

1. We watched the team practice every afternoon.
2. Nobody wanted Jackson to be the captain.
3. The coach, however, wished him to lead the team.
4. He, in turn, considered Cox to be the better man.
5. In the end the coach asked the team to decide.
6. Why, do you suppose, did he let them choose?
7. Probably he thought them to be the best judges.
8. In the end they asked Jackson to take the place.

## TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow :

[EXAMPLE. *Framework, Type III: She sometimes appeared moody.*]

1. Framework, Type I
2. Framework, Type II
3. Framework, Type III
4. Infinitive clause, Type I
5. Infinitive clause, Type II
6. Infinitive clause, Type III
7. A verb in two uses: (1) complete and (2) transitive
8. A verb in two uses: (1) linking and (2) nonlinking

## PARTS THAT ELABORATE A GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE

### Words

**52. Nature of Additions.** From the grammatical point of view, the words of a framework are the necessary parts of a grammatically complete structure, and all the other words or word groups are to be considered additions to that framework. The additions may be, and often are, of the greatest importance in expressing a desired meaning, but they remain, for all that, of subordinate grammatical importance. For illustration, compare these two sentences:

*Men bore me.*

Only a few *men*, luckily, really *bore me* at all times.

In the first sentence the words of the framework are all that is necessary to the grammatical structure; they completely express, also, the desired meaning. In the second sentence the added words are necessary for the complete expression of the desired meaning, but they are not necessary to the grammatical structure.

The sections that immediately follow show the kinds of additions that may be made to a framework.

**53. Independent Words.** A word that has no grammatical relation to the sentence in which it stands is said to be an *Independent Word*. Interjections and words of address belong to this class.

**54. Interjections.** Exclamatory sounds and exclamatory words may both be classed as *Interjections* (28).

*Um-m!* How good that tastes!

There were, *alas*, no more seats to be had.

**55. Words of Address.** Examples of *Words of Address* follow :

You little suspect, *Harry*, what you have before you.  
I have, *gentlemen*, only one more word to say.

**56. Expletives: *It* and *There*.** Compare these sentences :

A great *crowd* was in the room.  
*There* was a great *crowd* in the room.

The second sentence says no more than the first. The added word, *there*, has no other function than to permit the subject, *crowd*, to follow the verb instead of preceding it. A word having this function is called an *Expletive*, or "filler." Two words, *it* and *there*, may be used as expletives. For the use of the former expletive, compare these sentences :

*To raise so large a sum* will not be easy.  
*It* will not be easy *to raise so large a sum*.

The word *it* as an expletive should not be confused with *it* the pronoun (145), or with *it* the indefinite subject of an impersonal verb. Nor should the expletive *there* be confused with the adverb *there*.

*It* will cost you two dollars. [Pronoun]  
If *it* rains, do not go. [With impersonal verb]  
*There* goes the doctor. [Adverb]

For the number of the verb after the expletive *there*, see Grammatical Problem 10.

**57. The Appositive.** An *Appositive* is a substantive (12) following another substantive and calling the same person or thing by another name. The word *or* is sometimes used to introduce an appositive. A word used as an appositive is said to be "in apposition."

His son, *Lord Ashurst*, took no interest in politics.  
My incunabula, or *early printed books*, are all to be sold.



**58. Essential and Nonessential Appositives.** An appositive that merely adds an item of unnecessary information is said to be *Nonessential*. If such an appositive were omitted, the sense would still be clear, for the first substantive shows which person or thing is meant.

*My father, the defendant, won the case.*

*The subject of this clause, "he," is a pronoun.*

*At soccer, or Association football, he was never very expert.*

For the punctuation of a nonessential appositive, see 319.

An appositive that is necessary to identify the person or thing meant is said to be *Essential*. If it were omitted, the meaning would not be clear.

*My son Francis is the eldest of the three boys.*

*The word "he" is the subject of this clause.*

*My son Francis* and *The word "he"* illustrate essential appositives; they form, it will be seen, inseparable word groups.

For the punctuation of an essential appositive, see 319.

**59. The Delayed Appositive.** Sometimes the appositive, instead of following immediately the word it explains, is placed at the end of the sentence or clause. It may then be termed a *Delayed Appositive*. It deserves special notice because it is often set off by the dash rather than by the comma (305).

*There's only one thing I want now — a glass of water.*

*One trait endeared him to us — namely, his loyalty.*

**60. The Adjective and Sentence Structure.** The adjective (19) that stands just before its substantive or that is used parenthetically just after its substantive is an addition to a framework, not a part of one.

*A successful plan was finally worked out.*

*A plan, successful in the main, was finally worked out.*

However, a predicate adjective (44) or an adjunct objective (42) is part of a framework.

The garage was dark *green* in color.

He painted his garage *green*.

**61. Pronouns in Adjective Use.** For pronominal adjectives, see 20. For pronominal forms used as modifiers of substantives, see 62.

**62. Possessives in Adjective Use.** A noun in the possessive case (126) fulfils essentially the same function that an adjective modifier (19) does. Thus, compare the following sentences:

You may ride the *bay* mare. [Adjective]

You may ride the *Colonel's* mare. [Possessive]

The same function is fulfilled by the *Possessive Adjectives*, similar to the pronominal adjectives discussed in 20. Typical examples of them are *my, your, his, its, their, whose*.

The man *whose* horse came in first was my chief rival.

*His* horse was disqualified; so *my* horse won.

It will be noted that no one of the possessives is spelled with the apostrophe.

For possessive forms of personal pronouns that are used as substantives, see 150.

**63. Participles in Adjective Use.** When the sole function of a participle (21) is to modify, it has a purely adjective use.

The *drifting* fog shut off our view of the hills.

The fog, *drifting slowly*, shut off our view of the hills.

For the participle in a participial phrase, see 228 and 232.

**64. The Adverb and Sentence Structure.** An adverb in its usual function as a modifier of verb, adjective, or adverb (22) is always an addition to a framework, never a part of one.

**65. Connectives and Sentence Structure.** Of the connectives, a preposition (23), a conjunction (24), or an adverbial connective (265) may help to elaborate a framework or to join frameworks, but is never a part of a framework.

### Word Groups

**66. Word Groups as Units.** A word group often functions as a single word might function. In some word groups, called *Compound Words*, the separate words of the group do not have separate grammatical functions, but all function together as one word might function (6-7). Compound conjunctions and compound prepositions (268) are of this kind. The verb-phrase (14) also is a compound word.

I think *that* he is demented. [Single conjunction]

He acted *as if* he were demented. [Compound conjunction]

He had to stand *before* the whole class. [Single preposition]

He had to stand *in front of* the whole class. [Compound preposition]

The package *has been mailed* already. [Verb-phrase]

Some word groups are made up of words, each one of which has its separate function in the group. Important among word groups of this class are phrases (67) and clauses (70).

**67. The Phrase: Definition.** A *Phrase* is a group of related words not containing a subject and predicate. Each word of a phrase has its separate function, but the phrase as a whole functions as a single part of speech. Though the definition is broad enough to include word groups in considerable variety, the term *phrase* is usually confined to groups of two kinds: prepositional phrases (68) and verbal phrases (69). In this book the term will be so used.

For other word groups that might be classed as phrases, see 88.

**68. The Prepositional Phrase.** A substantive joined with a preposition to make a phrase is called the *Object* of the preposition. The object usually follows its preposition, but not always.

He was reprimanded *for carelessness*.

*For what* was he reprimanded?

*What* was he reprimanded *for*?

For the case of the object of a preposition, see 125.

A *Prepositional Phrase* consists of a preposition and its object, with or without other related words. A prepositional phrase following immediately after another may be considered a separate phrase or part of a long complex phrase.

I live *on this corner*.

I live *on that opposite corner*.

I live *on that corner beyond the church*.

If a prepositional phrase modifies a substantive, it may be called an adjectival phrase.

The photograph *in the brown frame* belonged to Ruskin.

If a prepositional phrase modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, it may be called an adverbial phrase.

He himself gave it *to my grandmother*.

To her it was valuable *beyond price*.

**69. The Verbal Phrase.** The term *Verbal Phrase* (226) (not to be confused with verb-phrase, 14) is a general term that may be applied equally to a participial phrase (228), an absolute participial phrase (232), a gerund phrase (229), or an infinitive phrase (230).

**70. The Clause: Definition.** A *Clause* is a word group containing a subject and a predicate, and functioning as part of a sentence. The name is appropriately used, therefore, only when there are two or more of such word groups

in a sentence. In each of the following sentences there are two clauses:

*He had more money now, but he didn't feel richer.*

*Though he had more money now, he didn't feel richer.*

A clause may be principal (82) or subordinate (83). If it is subordinate, it functions as a single word would function, either a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb (71-79).

**71. Substantive Clause Introduced by Conjunction.** A *Substantive Clause* may be introduced by a subordinating conjunction such as *that, whether, when, where, why*. Compare the function of the noun and of the substantive clause in the following sentences:

My uncle wrote me the *news*. [Noun]

My uncle wrote me *that Father was ill*. [Substantive clause]

Tell me his *address*. [Noun]

Tell me *where I can address him*. [Substantive clause]

Note that the conjunction *that*, introducing a substantive clause, is sometimes omitted (104).

I knew *that he was fooling*.

I knew *he was fooling*.

For incorrect substitutes for a *that*-clause, see Grammatical Problem 26.

**72. Substantive Clause Introduced by Pronoun.** A substantive clause may be introduced by the pronoun *what* or by a relative pronoun compounded with *ever* or *soever* (161). Thus, compare:

He wouldn't tell me his *opinion*. [Noun]

He wouldn't tell me *what he thought about it*. [Substantive clause]

Pass on the news to your *acquaintances*. [Noun]

Pass on the news to *whomever you meet*. [Substantive clause]

**73. Quoted Sentence as Substantive Clause.** A quoted sentence may be used as a substantive clause.

Just then Pug shouted an *invitation*. [Noun]

Just then Pug shouted, "*Come over here!*" [Substantive clause]

Also, a sentence not actually quoted may be used as a substantive clause if its form shows that it is to be regarded as a sentence. For the punctuation of such a sentence, see 299.

The only problem that remains is, *How shall we pay for it?*

**74. Infinitive Clause as Substantive Clause.** An infinitive clause, like a clause introduced by the conjunction *that*, functions as a substantive clause.

I always realized his *cowardice*. [Noun]

I always knew *that he was a coward*. [That-clause]

I always knew *him to be a coward*. [Infinitive clause]

In some constructions an infinitive clause is preceded by the word *for*, used idiomatically and without grammatical significance.

*For us to hesitate now* would be fatal.

One solution would be *for us to remain here all night*.

**75. Direct Discourse.** A *Direct Quotation* is an assertion — that is, a statement, a question, a command, or an exclamation — in the words of the speaker or thinker. Quotation marks (322) distinguish direct discourse.

"The Senate will never pass such a bill." [Statement]

"Will evening dress be worn?" [Question]

"How cheap that was!" [Exclamation]

When a direct quotation is embodied in a sentence, the assertion is said to be in *Direct Discourse*.

"*The Senate*," he repeated, "*will never pass such a bill.*"

Mary asked only one question: "*Will evening dress be worn?*"

"*How cheap that was!*" exclaimed Mr. Carstairs.

**76. Indirect Discourse.** When the substance of a quotation is introduced, usually by *that*, after a verb of saying, thinking, or the like, the assertion is said to be in *Indirect Discourse*. Indirect discourse does not usually repeat the exact words that would have been used in direct discourse.

He assured me *that the Senate would never pass such a bill*.

He said [*that*] *he would surely be here*.

Mr. Carstairs remarked *how cheap it was*.

A question in indirect discourse is an *Indirect Question*. The conjunction usually appropriate for introducing an indirect question is *whether*; *if* is a colloquial substitute that may be misleading; it is, therefore, usually avoided by careful writers.

Mary's one question was *whether evening dress would be worn*.

I wanted to ask him *whether he had a headache*.

Indirect discourse, whether in the form of a statement or of a question, is not inclosed in quotation marks (see Punctuation Problem 14).

For terminal punctuation after an indirect question, see 283.

**77. Adjective Clause Introduced by Relative Pronoun.** An *Adjective Clause* may be introduced by a relative pronoun such as *who* (*whom*, *whose*) or *that* (155). Compare the function of the adjective and that of the adjective clause in the following sentences:

He is an *untrustworthy* man. [Adjective]

He is a man *whom nobody can trust*. [Adjective clause]

It was an old *secondhand* car. [Adjective]

It was an old car *that I picked up secondhand*. [Adjective clause]

**78. Adjective Clause Introduced by Relative Adverb.** An adjective clause may be introduced by a *Relative Adverb* such as *when*, *where*, *why* (252). Compare, in the following

sentences, the function of the adjective clause with that of the adjective and of the adjective phrase:

It happened at a *summer* resort. [Adjective]

It happened at a resort *where we spent our summers*. [Adjective clause]

There was no good reason *for refusing*. [Adjective phrase]

There was no good reason *why he should refuse*. [Adjective clause]

**79. Adverbial Clause Introduced by Subordinating Conjunction.** An *Adverbial Clause* may be introduced by a subordinating conjunction (26) such as *because, if, in order that, though*. Some idea of how adverbial clauses may function as adverbs do may be obtained by comparing the following sentences:

*Perhaps* I shall come.

I shall come *if I can*. [Condition]

*Nevertheless* I shall come.

I shall come, *though I don't wish to*. [Concession]

*Therefore* I shall come.

I shall come *because you ask me*. [Cause]

It will be noticed that no single adverb can express precisely what can be expressed in an adverbial clause. It is perhaps most helpful to think of adverbial clauses as expressing different adverbial relationships, such as time, place, cause, result, purpose, condition, concession.

Come *whenever you can*. [Time]

Come early, *so that we may talk it over*. [Purpose]

He came so late *that I missed seeing him*. [Result]

For adverbial clauses incorrectly substituted for substantive clauses, see Grammatical Problem 26.

**80. Complete Subject and Complete Predicate.** The *Complete Subject* is the simple subject (34) with such addi-



## Parts that Elaborate a Structure Ex. 52-80

tional words as complete its meaning. The simple subject may of course be also the complete subject.

*Silence followed.*

*A long silence followed.*

*A silence that was equally embarrassing to all of us followed.*

The *Complete Predicate* is the simple predicate (34) with such additional words as complete its meaning. The simple predicate may of course be also the complete predicate.

*Ralph turned.*

*Ralph turned away quickly.*

*Ralph turned his back on us and walked abruptly away.*

Every complete sentence or clause can be divided into complete subject and complete predicate.

### EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 52-80

#### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. In the sentence *Many hands make light work*, which words form the framework, and which are additions to the framework?

2. To the framework *Fish bit*, make additions that completely change the meaning without altering the grammatical structure of the sentence.

3. In the sentence *Oh, Harry, are you never coming?* pick out the words of the framework. Of the other words, which are independent? To what class does each independent word belong?

4. By adding an expletive, change the word order of each of the following sentences: *Three good pitchers were on the team.* *To invite him would be a great mistake.*

5. In the sentences *It is not worth the money* and *It is not worth while to wait*, which *it* is an expletive? Explain the other *it*.

6. In the sentences *There should be rain tomorrow* and *There is the rain at last*, which *there* is an expletive? Explain the other *there*.

7. Add an appositive to the following sentence: *My principal refused to recommend me.*

8. Compare the following sentences: *He was eating a leek, or onionlike vegetable. They had nothing but leeks or carrots to eat.* Which sentence contains an appositive? Why?

9. Explain the difference between essential and nonessential appositives, using the following sentences as examples: *This is William, my cousin. He was knighted by William the Conqueror.*

10. Explain the difference between the appositives in the following sentences: *My chum, Harvey Stover, was the first to arrive. There was only one who did not come — Harvey Stover.*

11. In which of the following sentences is the adjective *slow* part of the framework? *The slow passage bored us. The passage was tediously slow. The passage, too slow by far, proved tedious.*

12. Show how the participle and the pronominal adjective are illustrated in the following sentences: *Books bound in Russia leather were my passion. Which horse is your father's favorite mount?*

13. Show how the following sentences illustrate compound words: *If I had been told earlier, I should have been more prompt. She had been delayed two days because of illness.*

14. From the following sentences pick out (1) prepositions, (2) objects of prepositions, and (3) prepositional phrases: *Within three minutes they were all on the track. The father of the boy had appealed to the judge for clemency.*

15. In the following sentences, which prepositional phrases are adjective phrases, and which are adverbial phrases? *The top of the tree had been blown to the ground. In those six days we had consumed our whole stock of provisions.*

16. In the following sentences, show what different grammatical units perform the same function: *Jacob squints like his father. Jacob squints as his father does.*

17. In the sentence *He knew that I was incompetent*, which is the substantive clause? Why?

18. By changing the sentence *Tell me your intentions*, show how a substantive clause may be used to perform the function of a noun.

## Parts that Elaborate a Structure Ex. 52-80

19. In the following sentence, show what function is performed by the final clause: I kept wondering, *How are we going to get out of this?*

20. Explain the function of the infinitive clause in the following sentence: *My father had never wished me to become a lawyer.*

21. Does the sentence *I told him frankly that his proposal was madness* illustrate direct or indirect discourse? Change the sentence so that it illustrates the other type of discourse.

22. Show that there is an adjective clause in the following sentence: *He was wearing a coat that somebody had thrown away.*

23. Name the kinds of adverbial clauses that are illustrated in the following sentences: *If it blows a gale, we shall put in two reefs. We put in two reefs because it was blowing a gale.*

24. In the sentences *He lay still, so that I did not hear him* and *He lay still, so that I might not hear him*, which is an adverbial clause of purpose, and which is an adverbial clause of result?

### EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Framework and Additions.** Which words in the following sentences form frameworks, and which are additions?

[EXAMPLE. *Sheila, her Irish terrier, was catching rats in the barn. Sheila was catching rats* is the framework; *her Irish terrier* and *in the barn* are additions.]

1. I did not expect you, Tom, until eleven.
2. How high will the tide lift the float?
3. The very thought of it, ugh, gives me the creeps.
4. The ink that he was using was far too thin.

**Independent Words.** Which are the independent words in the following sentences? To which type does each belong?

[EXAMPLE. *Ah, I have you there, George. Ah* is an interjection; *George* is a word of address.]

1. No, sir, I shall not forget.
2. Heavens! Where can Jill have gone?

3. Alas, Jim, I have used my last match.

4. He escaped, Your Honor, when my back was turned — worse luck!

**Appositives.** Which are appositives in the following sentences, and to which class, essential or nonessential, does each belong?

[EXAMPLE. *Micky the Rat was leader of the gang. The Rat* is an essential appositive.]

1. My brother Jack is at his usual haunt, the club.

2. The owner always comes aboard on the starboard, or right, side.

3. Her aunt, Mrs. Hall, claimed descent from Mary Queen of Scots.

4. My chief anxiety, that I should not hear them, kept me alert.

**Adjectives.** Which words in the following sentences function as adjectives? To which type does each belong? What word does each modify?

[EXAMPLE. *The dense fog enveloping the harbor held them at anchor. Dense* is an adjective modifying *fog*; *enveloping* is a participle modifying *fog*.]

1. My books, scorched by the intense heat, are now useless.

2. Those two men standing by the front steps are detectives.

3. Whose tennis racket is that lying in the corner?

4. All personal possessions left in the billiard room will be confiscated.

**Compound Words.** Which are the compound words in the following sentences, and what part of speech is each?

[EXAMPLE. *I shall speak to him in regard to that. Shall* is a verb-phrase, and *in regard to* is a compound preposition.]

1. Because of his flat feet the army has rejected him.

2. I would gladly have gone instead of him.

3. In spite of all my objections, he has left school.

4. He was reading in front of a big open fire.

## Parts that Elaborate a Structure Ex. 52-80

**Prepositional Phrases.** Which are the prepositional phrases in the following sentences? What word does each modify? As what part of speech does it function?

[EXAMPLE. *Write to the manager your version of the affair.* *To the manager* is an adverbial phrase modifying *write*; *of the affair* is an adjective phrase modifying *version*.]

1. She sat on the edge of the float, with her feet in the water.
2. In consequence of that one act, nobody would trust him with money.
3. He wrote in haste to Washington for a copy of his record.
4. After that experience he seemed tired of life itself.

**Substantive Clauses.** Which are the substantive clauses in the following sentences, and how may each type be distinguished?

[EXAMPLE. *I had always believed him to be my friend.* *Him to be my friend* is a clause substantive in function, infinitive in form.]

1. He told me at once what he wanted.
2. Mildred positively denied that she was engaged.
3. For an entire season he beat whomever he met in singles.
4. We all wanted her to accept the captain.

**Direct and Indirect Discourse.** Which sentences are in direct discourse, and which are in indirect discourse? Change each sentence to one of the opposite type.

[EXAMPLE. *I told him that he would never win:* indirect. Direct: I told him, "You will never win." ]

1. He replied hotly, "I don't believe it."
2. I asked him whether he was never mistaken.
3. He admitted smilingly that everyone was at times.
4. I answered good-humoredly, "This is one of the times."

**Adjective Clauses.** Which are the adjective clauses in the following sentences? By what kind of word is each introduced? What word does each clause modify?

[EXAMPLE. *We had at the time a cook who had just come from Ireland.* *Who had just come from Ireland* is an adjective clause introduced by a relative pronoun; the clause modifies *cook*.]

1. She told me of her experiences when she was a child.
2. Molly was a girl to whom nobody could be unkind.
3. We couldn't find the place where we had buried the tools.
4. Arrest at sight anybody that looks suspicious.

**Adverbial Clauses.** Which are the adverbial clauses in the following sentences? What relationship does each express? What word does each modify?

[EXAMPLE. *Though the water was cold, we plunged in.* *Though the water was cold* is a concessive adverbial clause modifying *plunged*.]

1. Don't go merely because I am going.
2. Meet me there early, so that we may get front seats.
3. If you change your address, send me the new one without fail.
4. Whenever it rained, Roger moped about the house.

**General.** Identify every italicized word, phrase, or clause in the following sentences, explaining the nature of each and the relationship of such as are not independent.

[EXAMPLE. *Oh, how I trembled whenever I heard that voice!* *Oh* is an interjection: it is independent. *Whenever I heard that voice* is an adverbial clause of time, modifying *trembled*.]

1. If anybody speaks to you about it, my son, tell me exactly what he says.
2. My brother, who had stolen the colonel's cherries, soon wished that he had not.
3. Since he needed money badly, he determined to return to his old occupation, mining.

## Parts that Elaborate a Structure Ex. 52-80

4. Every publisher *to whom he sent the manuscript* returned it, *alas, with regrets.*

5. *Whatever he said* always seemed to his irascible old father a veiled insult.

6. My brother *Dick* was discussing *with the captain* the time when the attack should be launched.

7. Your racket, *Phil, that I was using just now*, has two broken strings.

8. *Whose oilskins* are those swinging from a hook by the companionway?

9. John had to repeat, *with decision*, "Only those *who can swim* may go *in the boat.*"

10. The thought *that I might flunk* had not come to me, *alas, until that moment.*

### TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow :

[EXAMPLE. *Essential appositive*: My son *Jack* has the measles.]

1. An interjection
2. A word of address
3. *It* as an expletive
4. *There* as an expletive
5. An essential appositive
6. A nonessential appositive
7. A delayed appositive
8. An adjective modifier
9. A pronominal adjective
10. A participle
11. A verb-phrase
12. A compound preposition
13. A prepositional phrase (adj.)

14. A prepositional phrase (adv.)
15. A substantive clause introduced by a conjunction
16. A substantive clause introduced by a pronoun
17. A sentence as a substantive clause
18. An infinitive clause
19. Direct discourse
20. Indirect discourse
21. An adjective clause introduced by a relative pronoun
22. An adjective clause introduced by a relative adverb
23. An adverbial clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction



## ANALYSIS OF THE SENTENCE

### Clauses

**81. The Sentence and the Clause.** A sentence may contain one framework (31), or it may contain more than one. In sentences of the former kind there is no need of the term *clause*. In sentences of the latter kind, however, the term *clause* is applied to each part of the sentence that contains a subject and a predicate (70).

In some sentences each clause is entirely separate from every other clause. Thus, the following sentence consists of two clauses of Type II (40), each with its separate subject, verb, and object.

*He told me the facts, but they do not concern you.*

In other sentences, however, the clauses are not entirely separate, for one clause is part of another clause. Thus, in the following sentence the first clause, *what he said*, is itself the subject of the verb of the second clause.

*What he said* does not concern you.

Sometimes the same material may be expressed either in two separate sentences or in two separate clauses of a single sentence. For a discussion of such a choice, see 287.

**82. The Principal Clause.** A clause that is capable of standing alone as a grammatically complete sentence is called a *Principal Clause* (or, sometimes, an *Independent Clause*). Principal clauses may be joined by a coördinating conjunction (25), or they may stand side by side without a conjunction (292).

He turned the pages of one book, *and* then he took up another.  
He turned the pages of one book; then he took up another.

**83. The Subordinate Clause.** A clause that performs the function of a single word, whether that word be a substantive (71-74), an adjective (77-78), or an adverb (79), is called a *Subordinate Clause* (or, sometimes, a *Dependent Clause*). Like a substantive, an adjective, or an adverb, a subordinate clause does not normally stand alone, but forms part of a grammatically complete sentence.

For the subordinate clause incorrectly punctuated as a complete sentence, see 285.

For the exceptional use of a period after a subordinate clause, see 286.

**84. Types of Sentences.** For the different types of sentences in which principal and subordinate clauses are used, singly or in combination, see 114-118.

### Sentence Elements

**85. The Sentence Element: Definition.** The term *Sentence Element* may be used as a general term applicable to any word or group of words fulfilling a separate grammatical function. It is often a convenient term to use, for it saves the necessity of saying "word, phrase, clause, or other word group." The different units to which the term may be applied are explained in the next three sections.

**86. Words as Sentence Elements.** A word may be called a sentence element if it fulfils a separate function; not otherwise. A compound word, such as *inasmuch as*, *because of* (66), is therefore a sentence element.

**87. Phrases and Clauses as Sentence Elements.** Since a phrase (67) is a word group fulfilling a separate function, it may be called a sentence element. The same is true of a clause (70), whether principal or subordinate, or even of several clauses which together fulfil a single function.

For the phrase or clause incorrectly punctuated as a sentence, see 285 and Punctuation Problem 1.

**88. Other Word Groups as Sentence Elements.** Besides such word groups as are commonly listed as phrases, there are others that fulfil separate functions; and these too may be called sentence elements. Important examples of such word groups are (1) a substantive with modifiers, (2) an appositive with modifiers, (3) a verb, an adjective, or an adverb with modifiers, (4) a complete subject (80), and (5) a complete predicate (80).

*Only the men who volunteered first* were allowed to go. [Substantive with modifiers]

Fritz and Jerry, *the ones who had volunteered first*, were the only ones to go. [Appositive with modifiers]

Fritz and Jerry *had volunteered at once*, before any of the others had spoken. [Verb with modifier]

**89. Parenthetical Sentence Elements.** A word or word group so inserted in a sentence that the continuity of the sentence is slightly interrupted and then resumed is a *Parenthetical Sentence Element*. The term may be variously applied. Thus, it may be used of an independent sentence element, such as a word of address (55), an interjection (54), or an absolute participial phrase (232).

"You'll have to hurry, *Ben*, if you want a good seat."

His knee, *worse luck*, was not yet healed.

We have, *all things being equal*, a fair chance to win.

Again, adverbial expressions applying to a whole sentence or clause are often introduced as parenthetical sentence elements.

Service charges, *indeed*, may become a major item of expense. You should, *in that case*, report at once.

Finally, any phrase or clause becomes parenthetical when it is so placed as to interrupt the continuity of the sentence, as may be seen by comparing the following sentences:

He was able to finish the job on time by working fast.

He was able, *by working fast*, to finish the job on time.

I was told that there was only one other contestant.

There was, *I was told*, only one other contestant.

For the punctuation of parenthetical sentence elements, including closely related clauses like *do you suppose*, which are not completely parenthetical, see 316.

### Parallel Construction

**90. Sentence Elements in Parallel Construction.** Sentence elements that are of the same kind and that fulfil the same function in a sentence are said to be in *Parallel Construction*. Such elements may be words or word groups.

He liked *books* and *pictures*.

He liked *reading books* and *painting pictures*.

While *he read a novel* and *she painted pictures*, I went on with my work.

Elements in parallel construction need not correspond strictly in every detail. In the following sentence, for example, the two clauses fulfilling the same function are parallel, even though they are clauses of different types :

While *he read a novel* and *she dozed in a hammock*, I went on with my work.

If, however, elements fulfilling the same function are of different grammatical kinds, they are not parallel. In the following incorrect sentence, for example, the absolute participial phrase (232) and the subordinate clause (83) are not parallel :

**Incorrect:** *Jack being absorbed in his novel*, and *while Helen dozed in a hammock*, I went on with my work.

For practical applications of parallel construction, see Grammatical Problems 27-29.

**91. Accurate Parallel Construction.** If the elements in parallel construction are to express their meaning accurately, every word necessary for clearness must be repeated with each sentence element. Otherwise the sentence may be obscure or even misleading. The point may be illustrated by a comparison of the following sentences:

His office work was done by a *stenographer* and *bookkeeper*.

His office work was done by a *stenographer* and a *bookkeeper*.

Both sentences contain parallel elements. The fact, however, that the article *a* is not repeated in the first sentence makes it appear that only one person did the office work; whereas the repetition of the article in the second sentence makes it appear that two persons did the work. The intention of the writer determines what each of the parallel elements should contain.

Compare also the following sentences, one of which is immediately clear and the other of which is not:

**Clear:** He *will take no notice of what you say* and *will do whatever he pleases*.

**Obscure:** He *will take no notice of what you say* and *do whatever he pleases*.

Both sentences contain parallel elements. The fact that the auxiliary *will* is repeated in the first sentence makes it immediately clear that *take* and *do* are parallel; thus, *He will take . . . and he will do*. The other sentence, however, reads as if *say* and *do* were parallel; thus, *what you say and do*. It is not enough that the reader can, if he has misinterpreted a sentence, correct himself: it is the writer's duty to prevent any possibility of misinterpretation.

For the effect of improperly omitting introductory words, such as articles, possessives, prepositions, from sentence elements in parallel construction, see Grammatical Problems 28 and 29.

**92. Sentences in Parallel Construction.** The principle of parallel construction may be applied not only to phrases and clauses in a sentence, but to entire sentences. When successive sentences fulfil the same function in discourse, parallel construction is usually called for.

For sentences requiring parallel construction, see Grammatical Problems 27-29.

**93. Parallel Elements in Series.** Three or more parallel sentence elements (90) are said to be *in Series*. In the usual formula for a three-unit series (-----, -----, and (or) -----), each group of dashes stands for a word or a word group in parallel construction. The connective *and* (or) between the last two units of the series is sometimes omitted. Words in series are here illustrated :

It is a government *of, by, and for* the people.

He *bought, sold, exchanged, and repaired* old bicycles.

Phrases in series are here illustrated :

It is a government *of the people, by the people, and for the people*.

He eked out a living *by buying old bicycles, by repairing them, and by selling them again*.

Clauses in series are here illustrated :

It was a cold night, the rain was still beating down, and Willis had brought us no fish for supper.

For the construction of sentence elements in series, see Grammatical Problem 29.

**94. Accurate Parallelism in Series.** If elements in series (and therefore in parallel construction) are to express their meaning accurately, every word necessary for clearness must be repeated with each sentence element (91).

For the effect of improperly omitting introductory words, such as articles, possessives, prepositions, from sentence elements in series, see Grammatical Problem 29.

## Modifiers

**95. Adjectives in Series.** Adjectives may be said to be in series when each has a separate and equal value in modifying the substantive.

He was wearing a *misshapen, moth-eaten, rimless* hat.

Sometimes, however, an adjective (or adjectives) and a substantive are so closely associated in meaning that they form an inseparable word group. Thus, *silk dress*, or *black silk dress* may be thought of as essentially a compound substantive, and any modifier placed before the expression is felt to modify the whole word group.

She always wore *the same old black silk dress*.

In case of doubt as to whether adjectives in succession form a series or help to form an inseparable word group, a good test is to change the order of the adjectives. If the new order expresses the thought equally well, the adjectives are seen to be in series.

He wore a *rimless, moth-eaten, misshapen* hat.

If the new order destroys the sense, the original word group is seen to be inseparable.

**Incorrect:** She always wore *silk, black, old, same, the dress*.

For punctuation of adjectives in series, see Punctuation Problem 5.

**96. Complex Adjective Modifiers.** Sentence elements of varying complexity, from single words to elaborate clauses, may be used as adjective modifiers (19).

We bought an *upright* piano.

We bought an *unusually fine* piano.

We bought a piano *with a player attachment*.

We bought a piano *that had been used for two years by a music teacher of our acquaintance*.

**97. Complex Adverbial Modifiers.** Sentence elements of varying complexity, from single words to elaborate clauses, may be used as adverbial modifiers (22).

She played the violin *well*.

She played the violin *exceptionally well*.

She played the violin *with amazing skill*.

She played the violin *so that her hearers were all deeply moved*.

**98. Essential and Nonessential Modifiers.** An *Essential Modifier* is a modifying sentence element that unites with the word modified to make an inseparable word group. Such a modifier is necessary to the expression of the intended meaning: if it were omitted, the meaning would not merely be less complete; it would be radically changed. Thus, compare the following sentences:

*Any man whom I marry* must be taller than I am.

*Any man* must be taller than I am.

The first sentence, containing the essential modifier *whom I marry*, carries a definite meaning; the second sentence, without the modifier, lacks sensible meaning altogether.

A *Nonessential Modifier* is a modifying sentence element that adds to the complete expression of a thought an item of further information. Such a modifier may be omitted without affecting the meaning of what remains. Thus, compare the following sentences:

*Phil Barlow, whom I shall marry*, is taller than I am.

*Phil Barlow* is taller than I am.

In the first sentence the modifier gives an item of information that the second sentence lacks; but the second is, so far as it goes, both complete and accurate.

In the sentences that follow in pairs, the first of each pair contains a modifier that is essential; the second, one that is nonessential. It will be noted that in the first sentence



of each pair the word modified is indefinite, and so is in need of a modifier to show exactly what is meant. In the second sentence, on the other hand, the word modified is itself definite, and therefore needs no modifier to make it precise. It will also be noted that the essential modifier is not set off by the comma; the nonessential modifier is so set off (320).

Here are relative clauses (157) forming adjective modifiers:

The daughter *who was in boarding school* eloped.

His youngest daughter, *who was in boarding school*, eloped.

Some mining stock *that he had inherited* made his fortune.

His stock in the C. and H. Mine, *which he had thought valueless*, made his fortune.

Here are adjective clauses introduced by relative adverbs (252):

Do you remember the day *when we first met*?

Do you remember last New Year's Day, *when we first met*?

We both had forgotten the place *where we were to meet*.

We both reached the ferry, *where we were to meet*, at the same instant.

Here are phrases that are adjective modifiers (96):

I am looking for a set of Scott *bound in half-leather*.

This set, *bound in full leather*, costs only forty dollars.

Here are adverbial clauses of time, place, and cause (79):

I first met him *just after he had failed in business*.

I first met him five years ago, *just after he had failed in business*.

He always wanted to buy lots *wherever he happened to be*.

Last fall he bought a lot here, *where he had been passing the summer*.

Don't do a foolish thing *merely because someone dares you to*.

I did it foolishly, *merely because someone dared me to*.

**Grammatical Rank**

**99. Relative Grammatical Rank of Clauses.** According to the functions that they fulfil in a sentence, sentence elements have different ranks, or grammatical values. Among clauses, principal clauses (82) are of the highest rank. The principal clauses of a compound sentence (116) are therefore of equal rank.

*Leslie didn't care for football matches, but Tom never missed a game.*

A subordinate clause (83) is of lower rank than a principal clause.

*Though Leslie didn't care for football matches, Tom never missed a game.*

A clause that is dependent upon a subordinate clause is of still lower rank than the clause on which it depends.

*Though Leslie sometimes went to football matches when he had nothing else to do, Tom never missed a game.*

**100. Relative Rank of Other Sentence Elements.** A modifier, whether word, phrase, clause, or word group (96-97), is of lower rank than the word it modifies.

*The new cooler had not been working well.*

*The cooler, recently bought from a local dealer, had not been working well.*

*The recently installed cooler had not been working well.*

*The cooler that we had just installed was not working well.*

**101. Coördinate Sentence Elements.** Sentence elements (85) that have the same grammatical rank are called *Coördinate*. Thus, principal clauses (82) are always coördinate; subordinate clauses (83) that have the same relation to a principal clause are coördinate; and words and phrases that perform the same function (90) are coördinate.

### Sentence Order

**102. Normal Sentence Order.** In a sentence that has *Normal Sentence Order*, the subject comes before the verb, and the object of the verb or the predicate nominative (if the sentence has either) comes after the verb. In normal sentence order, too, a preposition stands before its object, and a modifier stands close to the word it modifies.

The *house* itself *stood* far back from the road.

*He* had sold all his *schoolbooks* long before.

The *boy* had never dreamed of such good fortune.

**103. Transposed Sentence Order.** A sentence in which the normal sentence order is not followed is in *Transposed Sentence Order*.

Far back from the road *stood* the *house* itself.

All his *schoolbooks* *he* had sold long before.

*What* had he sold long before?

*Of* such good fortune the *boy* had never dreamed.

*Never* had the boy dreamed of such good fortune.

For the use of transposed order in achieving emphasis, see Rhetorical Problem 19.

### Ellipsis

**104. Ellipsis: Definition.** *Ellipsis* is the omission of a word or words necessary to complete grammatical expression. In an elliptical expression whatever is omitted is said to be understood. In the following examples, showing familiar types of ellipsis, the sentences are grammatically complete when the words in brackets ([ ]) are expressed; with the same words omitted, the sentences are none the less correct:

Do you think [*that*] he will come? [Conjunction *that*]

This is the book [*which*] I mentioned. [Relative pronoun, object]

This is the book [*which*] I referred to. [Relative pronoun, object of a preposition]

Do you consider him [*to be*] honest? [Linking verb in infinitive clause]

Who weighs least? Bob [*weighs least*]. [Predicate]

**105. The Dangling Elliptical Clause.** In a subordinate clause (usually expressing time), the subject and a form of the verb *be* may be omitted if the omitted subject is the same as that of the principal verb.

While [*we were*] cruising last summer, *we* lost our bowsprit.

*You* may ring until [*you are*] tired, but nobody will come.

For the elliptical clause that incorrectly "dangles," see Grammatical Problem 19.

**106. Ellipsis in Parallel Parts of a Sentence.** A word or word group that logically belongs in each of two parallel parts of a sentence may sometimes be omitted from one of them.

The book interested [*me*] but did not thrill *me*.

I *was* interested in [*the book*] but [*was*] not thrilled by *the book*.

Sentences like the one immediately preceding, in which a sense of suspense is strongly felt, may be considered correct; but they are unquestionably awkward (see 353).

For the correct use of ellipsis in parallel constructions, see Grammatical Problem 30.

**107. Ellipsis in Comparisons.** In comparisons, clauses introduced by the conjunctions *as* or *than* are frequently elliptical.

Helen *is as good* at serving as I [*am good*].

Helen *can lob* far better than I [*can lob*].

Helen *can beat Ruth* more easily than I [*can beat her*].

Helen *can beat Ruth* more easily than [*she can beat*] me.

For the correct choice of case in an elliptical clause, see Grammatical Problem 4.

EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 81-107

QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. If the clauses in the following sentences are related to each other differently, in what does the difference consist? *His nurse gave him whatever he asked for. He asked for things, and his nurse always gave them to him.*

2. Using the following sentences, show how a subordinate clause may be distinguished from a principal clause: *He read the newspapers, but they didn't interest him. He read the newspapers only when they interested him.*

3. What are the words, the phrases, and the clauses that may be distinguished as sentence elements in the sentence that follows? *If you have once stood in front of a judge, you will understand without difficulty how I felt.*

4. The sentence that follows illustrates sentence elements that are neither phrases nor clauses. What are they? *A big white schooner, a beautiful craft for long cruises, was lying at anchor off the pier.*

5. Rephrase the following sentences so that certain sentence elements will be parenthetical: *All things considered, it was a good bargain. It seemed that the storm sewer had become clogged.*

6. Change the following sentence to one having phrases in parallel structure: *She earned her living by taking in washing; also she did sewing for the neighbors.*

7. Show how the principle of accurate parallel structure may be employed to improve the following sentence: *I always hated to cook and wash dishes.*

8. Make an addition to the following sentence so that it will illustrate sentence elements in series: *We fished the streams or explored the woods all day long.*

9. Which adjectives in the following sentence are in series? Why? *He was a bright, lively, talkative little fellow.*

10. Is the modifier in the sentence that follows essential or non-essential? How may the sentence be changed so that the modifier

will be of the opposite type? *The teacher who exercised most influence over me is now dead.*

11. Why is the adverbial modifier in one of the following sentences set off by the comma, whereas the other is not? *Don't telephone me at ten o'clock, when I'm sure to be busy. Don't telephone me at an hour when I'm sure to be busy.*

12. Indicate the relative grammatical rank of each clause in the following sentence: *If you telephone when I am busy, I cannot talk to you.*

13. In the following sentence, which is of higher grammatical rank—the word *person*, or the clause that follows it? *Who is the person who just called you up?*

14. Point out the coördinate sentence elements in the following sentence: *If you don't like to swim or to sail, and if sitting still and reading bores you, you won't, I fear, want to stay here long or to come here often.*

15. Change the following sentences that are in normal order to sentences in transposed order, and *vice versa*: *First came the mounted policemen. They rode their horses proudly. Best of all were the Zouaves.*

16. What additions are necessary to complete the following elliptical sentences? *Where is the book I lent you? Are you sure it doesn't leak? I believe him thoroughly untrustworthy.*

17. By analyzing the following sentence, show (1) what is wrong with it and (2) how the grammatical fault may be corrected: *While changing a tire, the car should not stand on the highway.*

18. Show how the principle of ellipsis explains the differences of meaning in the following sentences: *Professor Schilling rates him higher than I. Professor Schilling rates him higher than me.*

#### EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Principal and Subordinate Clauses.** Which clauses in the following sentences are principal clauses? Of the subordinate clauses, which are substantive clauses, which are adjective clauses, and which are adverbial clauses?

[EXAMPLE. *As soon as he asked me a direct question, I answered him. I answered him* is a principal clause. The other clause is subordinate, an adverbial clause of time.]

1. The boy insisted that he knew what he was talking about.
2. If you write the exact words that I tell you, you will make no mistake.
3. You may travel far, but you will never find a hotel that will suit you better.
4. When he understood what I meant, he admitted that he agreed with me perfectly.

**Phrases as Sentence Elements.** Which sentence elements in the following sentences are phrases, and how is each used?

[EXAMPLE. *My retreat was a summerhouse erected in the garden. Erected in the garden* is a participial phrase, an adjective in use, modifying *summerhouse*. *In the garden* is a prepositional phrase, an adverb in use, modifying *erected*.]

1. During the season the tourists supply a great part of the revenue.
2. The operations were directed by the boatswain sitting on a yard.
3. From the top of the stairs the hostess was looking at the scene below her.
4. A gypsy's cart full of tinware was standing in front of the house.

**Word Groups as Sentence Elements.** Which sentence elements in the following sentences are neither words, phrases, nor clauses?

[EXAMPLE. *His mount, a great dray horse, was clumsy enough. His mount* is a substantive with modifier; *a great dray horse* is an appositive with modifiers; *clumsy enough* is an adjective with modifier; *His ... horse* is the complete subject; *was ... enough* is the complete predicate.]

1. An unusually destructive typhoon had recently visited the region.
2. Three little girls were solemnly burying a dead squirrel.
3. My kindergarten teacher, a sweet young lady, held my heart.
4. Peter's view of the matter was quite unnecessarily severe.

**Parallel Sentence Elements.** Which sentence elements in the following sentences are parallel in construction?

[EXAMPLE. *When the dance was over and the guests had all left, the room looked desolate indeed.* The subordinate clauses *the dance was over and the guests had all left*, both introduced by *when*, are parallel.]

1. They advertised regularly in the most important monthly magazines, in the largest weeklies, and in a few trade journals.
2. Where he went, whom he saw, and what he did were all reported in the daily press.
3. We were advised to notify the police, to call up the newspapers, and even to communicate with the broadcasting stations.
4. If the wind was light and the tide strong, they either remained at anchor or called for a tug.

**Adjectives in Series.** Which of the adjectives in the following sentences are in series?

[EXAMPLE. *Mose was driving a skinny, hammer-headed, fleabitten old horse.* *Skinny, hammer-headed, and fleabitten* are in series.]

1. That fatuous, silly old cat followed me all the way home.
2. Only men who were young, strong, and experienced would find jobs.
3. He always appeared in those funny old patched trousers.
4. A beautiful, well-dressed, vapid young girl will never lack a partner.

**Essential and Nonessential Modifiers.** Which modifiers in the following sentences are essential, and which are non-essential? Why?



[EXAMPLE. *Can you find some place where we shall not be disturbed? Where we shall not be disturbed* is an essential modifier; *some place*, the expression modified, is indefinite.]

1. All typewriters that skip spaces should be cast into the sea.
2. I can't find a critical journal that really satisfies me.
3. The Red Lion Inn, where we usually met, was closed for repairs.
4. The *Rambler*, newly scraped and painted, was almost ready to launch.

**Relative Rank of Sentence Elements.** Which of the two italicized sentence elements in each of the following sentences has the higher grammatical rank?

[EXAMPLE. *I was sleeping soundly* when the fire broke out. *I was sleeping soundly* is a principal clause, and therefore of higher rank than the other clause, which is subordinate.]

1. I called a *taxi* that was standing by the corner.
2. He *promised* that he would write as soon as *he reached* a post office.
3. *Tell me the whole story*, exactly as *it was told* to you.
4. The *store* at the corner, *where the meeting was being held*, was closely shuttered.

**Sentence Order.** Which of the following sentences are in normal order, and which in transposed order? Why?

[EXAMPLE. *Never again have I laid eyes on him.* The sentence is in transposed order because the subject does not stand before the verb.]

1. The company never ceased bombarding me with advertising literature.
2. Why he should write to me in that tone I could never imagine.
3. What in the world is the matter with him?
4. That he wished to irritate me was all too evident.

**Ellipsis.** Which of the following sentences are elliptical, and what words are left out of those that are?

[EXAMPLE. *I always knew he disliked me.* The sentence is elliptical, for it lacks the conjunction *that* between *knew* and *he*.]

1. Where is the book you promised to bring me?
2. I could walk almost as fast as she could.
3. He was fascinated but not captivated by her.
4. They would far rather go with us than with you.

**General.** What examples of sentence elements, parallel construction, essential and nonessential modifiers, etc., can be found in the following sentences?

1. He wouldn't tell where he was going, what he was going to do, or when he was coming back.
2. Those who did not have reserved seats went to the hard, sunny, crowded bleachers.
3. Scotty's suggestion, to saw off the log, was finally adopted by the others.
4. We were impressed, but not altogether convinced, by the lieutenant's arguments.
5. Never had coffee smelled more delicious.
6. The tramp was taken at once to the city jail, where he was booked on a charge of vagrancy.
7. Don't hesitate, if ever I can serve you, to let me know what I can do.
8. Mr. Hargrave, who succeeded to the presidency, did no better than his predecessor.
9. That cheap little secondhand car outlasted my high-powered, expensive limousine.
10. We had met him before, when he was quartermaster on one of the Honolulu liners.

TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow.

[EXAMPLE. *Essential modifier: adjective* — Everybody]  
[*who was dancing* was in costume.]

1. Principal clause
2. Subordinate clause
3. Sentence element: compound word
4. Sentence element: phrase
5. Sentence element: substantive with modifiers
6. Sentence element: appositive with modifiers
7. Complete subject
8. Complete predicate
9. Parenthetical sentence element
10. Parallel construction
11. Parallel sentence elements in series
12. Adjectives in series
13. Essential modifier: adjective
14. Essential modifier: adverb
15. Nonessential modifier: adjective
16. Nonessential modifier: adverb
17. Normal order
18. Transposed order
19. Elliptical sentence
20. Elliptical time clause

## CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES

### By Purpose

**108. Classification according to Purpose.** Sentences may be listed conveniently under the following headings: (1) declarative, (2) imperative, (3) interrogative, and (4) exclamatory. It should be understood, however, that these categories are not mutually exclusive.

**109. The Declarative Sentence.** The *Declarative Sentence* makes a statement.

The weather that morning was atrocious.

A sentence may contain an indirect question (76) and still be declarative.

He wanted to know *whether I had ever seen more atrocious weather.*

**110. The Imperative Sentence.** The *Imperative Sentence* gives a command or makes a request. Its subject, in the second person, is usually unexpressed.

[You] take this to the office for me.

Do [you] stand still and listen to what I say.

**111. The Interrogative Sentence.** The *Interrogative Sentence* asks a direct question.

Is there a full moon tonight?

Where did he say we should meet?

A declarative sentence is turned into an interrogative sentence by the addition of questioning words like *doesn't it*, *are you* at the end.

This is not the annual meeting, *is it?*

You will support Scott for secretary, *won't you?*

**112. The Exclamatory Sentence.** The *Exclamatory Sentence* expresses an emotional reaction to a stimulus. Some sentence forms are peculiar to the exclamatory sentence.

What a night that was!

How smoothly she glides!

An exclamatory sentence may be in form either declarative, imperative, or interrogative (282).

**113. Punctuation Appropriate to Different Types.** For the marks of terminal punctuation appropriate to the declarative, the imperative, the interrogative, and the exclamatory sentence, see 282.

### By Grammatical Structure

**114. Classification according to Grammatical Structure.** Sentences may be classified according to grammatical structure as (1) simple, (2) compound, (3) complex, or (4) compound-complex.

**115. The Simple Sentence.** A *Simple Sentence* ordinarily has one subject and one predicate. A sentence is considered simple, however, if there are two or more subjects for one verb, two or more verbs for one subject, or even two or more subjects for two or more verbs, if both subjects are subjects of both verbs.

The *prisoner* faced the camera unwillingly.

The *prisoner* and his *guard* faced the camera.

The *prisoner* turned and walked away.

The *prisoner* and his *guard* turned and walked away.

**116. The Compound Sentence.** A *Compound Sentence* is made up of two or more principal clauses (82). The clauses may or may not be joined by a coordinating conjunction.

Warnings were plentiful, *but* the stocks went on rising.

Warnings were plentiful; the stocks, however, went on rising.

In the compound sentence each clause has its own subject and its own predicate. It should not be confused with a sentence having one subject and a compound predicate. Contrast the following sentences :

*I distrusted him from the first and was glad to see him go.*  
[Compound predicate]

*I distrusted him from the first, and so I was glad to see him go.*  
[Compound sentence]

**117. The Complex Sentence.** A *Complex Sentence* is one made up of a principal clause (82) and at least one subordinate clause (83).

Their linemen blocked every play that we tried.

Though we had many trick plays that we had practiced, their linemen blocked them all.

The subordinate clause of a complex sentence may be a part of the principal clause. In the following sentence it is the object of the verb :

Their linemen seemed to know *just what we were going to do*.

**118. The Compound-Complex Sentence.** A *Compound-Complex Sentence* is made up of two or more principal clauses and at least one subordinate clause.

Their linemen knew just what we were going to do, and so they successfully blocked every play that we tried.

### By Rhetorical Structure

**119. Classification according to Rhetorical Structure.** It is sometimes useful to consider how the structure of a sentence may contribute to its effectiveness, or its rhetorical quality (335). For this purpose sentences may be analyzed as (1) loose, (2) periodic, or (3) balanced. It must be understood, however, that the categories are not mutually exclusive.

**120. The Loose Sentence.** The *Loose Sentence* is one in which a principal clause (82) is completed before the end of the sentence is reached.

*They were strong as individual players, but they were weak when they played together as a team.*

**121. The Periodic Sentence.** The *Periodic Sentence* is one in which a principal clause (82) is not completed before the end of the sentence.

*Though they were strong as individual players, they were, when playing together as a team, weak.*

For emphasis through periodic structure, see Rhetorical Problem 19.

**122. The Balanced Sentence.** The *Balanced Sentence* is one in which relationships of ideas are emphasized by means of parallel structure (90).

*As individual players they were strong, but as a team they were weak.*

For emphasis through balanced structure, see Rhetorical Problem 19.

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 108-122

### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

(In some of the examples used below, end punctuation has purposely been omitted.)

1. When classified according to purpose, should *What do you think* and *He asked me what I thought* be put into the same class? Why?

2. What is the subject of the verb in the following sentence? *Come to dinner at once, please.* How should the sentence be classified according to purpose?

3. When classified according to purpose, should *I want you to see my dogs* and *You'll come to see my dogs, won't you* be put into the same class? Why?

4. How should *Don't speak so loud* be classified according to purpose? Should *You should not speak so loud* be classified in the same way? Why?

5. Can any of the following sentences be classified, according to purpose, in more than one way? If so, how, and why? *How scared she was* *That was a scare indeed* *Wasn't that a scare*

6. When classified according to grammatical structure, should *He looked at me once and then lowered his eyes* and *He looked at me once; then he lowered his eyes* be put in the same class? Why?

7. How should *The day was cool, and we walked* be classified according to grammatical structure? Should *Since the day was cool, we walked* be classified in the same way? Why?

8. When classified according to rhetorical structure, should *If you move, I'll shoot* and *I'll shoot if you move* be put into the same class? Why?

9. Should the sentences that follow be classified, according to rhetorical structure, in the same way? Why? *My principal judged me to be lazy, but my father knew me to be slow. Though my principal thought me lazy, my father realized that I was slow. My principal thought me lazy, but I was known by my father to be slow.*

#### EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

(In some of the examples used below, end punctuation has purposely been omitted.)

**Classification by Purpose.** To what class — declarative, imperative, interrogative, or exclamatory — does each of the following sentences belong? Can any sentence be listed in more than one class?

[EXAMPLE. *That is a joke.* The sentence makes a statement: it is declarative. With an accent on *is*, it might be used as an exclamatory sentence.]

1. Won't it be fun
2. What are you thinking about
3. I know what you are thinking about



4. Don't tell me what you are thinking about
5. You're thinking about me, aren't you
6. I think it was shocking
7. You really think it was shocking
8. Wasn't it shocking
9. How shocking it was
10. Confess that you consider it shocking

*Classification by Grammatical Structure.* To what class — simple, compound, complex, or compound-complex — does each of the following sentences belong?

[EXAMPLE. *The car skidded sideways and stopped just short of the ditch.* The sentence is simple, for it has one subject and a compound predicate.]

1. Be sure to catch the ten-forty train ; otherwise you'll have to wait until three o'clock.
2. He thought that he was explaining, but he didn't know exactly what he was saying.
3. By playing tennis in our bathing-suits, we were all ready to jump into the water later.
4. Since we played tennis in our bathing-suits, we were all ready to jump into the water later.
5. I had no idea what I should do after finishing school.
6. The guide had prophesied clearing weather, but it continued to rain all day.
7. Between halves the coach, instead of talking to the men, beckoned to the captain and led him into the locker-room.
8. The measure was quickly passed by the House, but when it reached the Senate a long debate ensued.
9. Nobody laughed this time ; the joke was getting old.
10. If some foolish women hadn't gossiped, nobody would have known what Mrs. Lund had suffered before she came to live here.

**Classification by Rhetorical Structure.** To what class — loose, periodic, or balanced — does each of the following sentences belong?

[EXAMPLE. *We asked her to join us, but she wouldn't leave her book.* The sentence is loose, for the first clause, a principal one, is complete before the end of the sentence is reached.]

1. When the vote was counted, none of the candidates, it was found, had a clear majority.
2. The old car consumed gas like a toper, but it climbed hills like a rabbit.
3. He would never have been found out if he had not succumbed to an irresistible temptation to brag.
4. Mollie seemed always to be playing when the others were working, and working when the others were playing.
5. In this way she traveled all over the country, working as a waitress whenever she needed money.
6. If it had not been for the mosquitoes, the place would have been quite perfect.

#### TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate each of the terms that follow:

[EXAMPLE. *Complex sentence*: If you don't tell, I shall.]

- |                           |                              |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Declarative sentence   | 7. Complex sentence          |
| 2. Imperative sentence    | 8. Compound-complex sentence |
| 3. Interrogative sentence |                              |
| 4. Exclamatory sentence   | 9. Loose sentence            |
| 5. Simple sentence        | 10. Periodic sentence        |
| 6. Compound sentence      | 11. Balanced sentence        |

## THE SUBSTANTIVE: FORMS AND USES

**123. The Properties of the Substantive.** Substantives, whether nouns or pronouns (12), have the following *Properties*: gender, person, number, and case. The properties of substantives are sometimes indicated by form, sometimes by use, and sometimes by form and use.

*Gender* distinguishes sex, whether (1) Masculine (*buck, gander, he*), or (2) Feminine (*doe, goose, she*). What is neither masculine nor feminine is (3) Neuter (*thing, duty, it*), and what is either masculine or feminine is (4) Common (*anyone, person, who*). Some nouns that are normally neuter may acquire, through personification, another gender. Thus, the nouns *ship* and *moon* may be referred to as *she*. For special problems of gender, see 146-147 and 158.

*Person* distinguishes (1) the one speaking (*I*, the First Person), (2) the one spoken to (*you*, the Second Person), and (3) the one spoken about (*men, things, it*, etc., the Third Person).

*Number* distinguishes (1) one (*book*, Singular) from (2) more than one (*books*, Plural).

*Case* distinguishes (1) a word used as a subject (*he, they, who*, Nominative), (2) a word used as an object (*him, them, whom*, Objective, or Accusative), and (3) a word used to indicate possession or close relationship (*Frank's, soldiers'*, Possessive, or Genitive). Since every noun has but one form for both nominative use and objective use, the case of a noun in either use is sometimes described as Common. The cases of a pronoun are sometimes described as Nominative and Accusative-Dative.

For possessive pronouns, see 150.

**124. Nominative Case: Uses.** The *Nominative Case* is employed when a word has one of the following uses:

**Subject of a Verb**

The *maid* told me that *he* was out.

**Predicate Nominative after a Linking Verb (44)**

The girl was not *she* whom we were expecting.

The girl only seemed to be *she*.

**Nominative Absolute in Participial Phrase (232)**

The *manager* being absent, we spoke to his secretary.

**Word of Address (55)**

This package, *Lucille*, is for you.

For constructions calling for the nominative case, see Grammatical Problems 1, 4, and 5.

**125. Objective Case: Uses.** The *Objective Case* is employed when a word has one of the following uses:

**Object of a Verb (38)**

Did you see the *man* whom they have arrested?

**Indirect Object of a Verb (41)**

Give *him* the letters, and *me* the package.

**Adjunct Objective (42)**

The committee appointed him *manager*.

**Object of a Preposition (68)**

The telegram was sent to *me* from *Tampa*.

**Subject in Infinitive Clause (50)**

Who asked *him* to come?

**Predicate of Infinitive (51)**

I asked him to be my *partner*.

**Noun Used Adverbially**

We then returned *home*. (Compare 38, at end.)

## The Substantive: Forms and Uses 126-129

For constructions that call for the objective case, see Grammatical Problems 2, 4, and 5.

**126. Possessive Case: Uses.** The *Possessive Case* is employed when a word has one of the following uses:

### Word Indicating Possession

*Phil's* book just grazed *Ned's* head.

### Word Indicating Close Relationship (Compare *of*-phrase)

The *lawyer's* success was *Father's* ruin.

(The success *of the lawyer* was the ruin *of Father.*)

### Agent of a Gerund (233)

*Lester's* coming unexpectedly upset all our plans.

For the use of a possessive before a gerund, see Grammatical Problem 3.

**127. Case of the Appositive.** An appositive (57) takes the case of the word with which it is associated.

My uncle, *General Slingsby*, reviewed the procession. [Nominative]

I introduced my uncle, *General Slingsby*, to the mayor. [Objective]

## THE NOUN: FORMS AND USES

### Kinds of Nouns

**128. The Common Noun.** A *Common Noun* is a name that may be applied to any one of a class. Such a noun is written with a small initial letter.

ruler

river

league

**129. The Proper Noun.** A *Proper Noun* is the individual designation of a particular person or thing. For the use of capital letters with proper nouns or with the chief words that form them, see 426-442.

Julius Cæsar

the Mississippi

the League of Nations

Some nouns are common or proper according to their use.

Did your *father* vote?

Did you vote, *Father*?

His *death* was unexpected.

Mr. Fox acted *Death*.

**130. The Collective Noun.** A *Collective Noun* names a group made up of similar individuals.

regiment      flock      crowd      collection      team

For the number of a collective noun, see 136.

**131. The Verbal Noun.** For the *Verbal Nouns*, the gerund and the infinitive, see 17, 223-224.

### Inflections of the Noun

**132. Declension.** *Declension* is the setting forth of the form or forms of a substantive appropriate for each case use. The form of a given substantive may be the same, though the uses of that form, determining its case, may be different.

**133. Declension of the Noun.** The declension of the noun may be studied in the following typical examples:

SINGULAR					
<i>Nom.</i>	ship	box	lady	calf	hero      man
<i>Obj.</i>	ship	box	lady	calf	hero      man
<i>Poss.</i>	ship's	box's	lady's	calf's	hero's      man's
PLURAL					
<i>Nom.</i>	ships	boxes	ladies	calves	heroes      men
<i>Obj.</i>	ships	boxes	ladies	calves	heroes      men
<i>Poss.</i>	ships'	boxes'	ladies'	calves'	heroes'      men's

**134. Possessive Forms.** If a noun ending in an s-sound is monosyllabic or is accented on the last syllable, the apostrophe and s are added to form the possessive; thus, *Ross's car*, *Alfonse's brother*. If a noun ending in an s-sound is accented on the third syllable from the end, it is

sometimes sufficient to use only an apostrophe in writing, and to pronounce the word without an added s-sound; thus, *Demosthenes' orations* (but *Beatrice's dress*). If a noun ending in an s-sound is accented on the second syllable from the end, an apostrophe is sometimes considered sufficient, especially before a word beginning with s; thus, *for conscience' sake*; the preferred usage, however, is to add an apostrophe with s, and to pronounce the word accordingly; thus, *Williams's house*, *Dickens's books*.

**135. Number: Incomplete Declension.** Certain nouns, like *billiards*, *mumps*, *mathematics*, *news*, *physics*, *politics*, though plural in form, are usually singular in use (191).

The *news* is good.

*Politics* is his hobby.

There are other nouns, like *eaves*, *scissors*, *tongs*, *trousers*, that are always plural, both in form and in use.

**136. Number: Collective Nouns.** A collective noun (130) is normally singular; but when emphasis is placed upon the individuals composing the groups, such a noun may be treated as a plural.

The *team* was photographed yesterday.

The *team* were measured for *their* uniforms yesterday.

For the number of the verb after a collective noun, see Grammatical Problem 8.

**137. Case: Possessive.** Close relationship is not, as a rule, expressed by the possessive case of a noun naming an inanimate object: an *of*-phrase is preferable, except in certain stock phrases like *a day's march*, *a stone's throw*.

the drawer *of the desk*  
the end *of the trail*  
the sole *of a shoe*

the delta *of the river*  
the light *of a lamp*  
the sound *of the kettle*

## THE PRONOUN: FORMS AND USES

## General Uses

**138. Classes of Pronouns.** Pronouns are divided, according to their nature and use, into several classes, as follows: (1) personal pronouns, (2) intensive and reflexive pronouns, (3) relative pronouns, both single and compound, (4) interrogative pronouns, (5) demonstrative pronouns, and (6) indefinite pronouns. For pronominal adjectives, see 20, 62, 164, 169, 171, and 175.

**139. Pronouns with Antecedents.** Some pronouns are substitutes for substantives that have already been expressed. A substantive thus referred to is called the *Antecedent* of the pronoun.

*Mr. Richards* writes that *he* cannot come.  
The *chauffeur* *whom* I first engaged was reckless.

**140. Pronouns without Antecedents.** Some pronouns do not have antecedents.

*This* [the car here] is badly scratched.  
*One* [you, I, anybody] always suspects a glib talker.

**141. Form and Position of the Antecedent.** The relation of antecedent and pronoun should be instantly clear. What does this principle require, then, of the antecedent?

1. The antecedent should ordinarily be a substantive that is definitely expressed, not one that is merely implied. Thus, in the following sentence the antecedent of the pronoun *it* is the expressed substantive *leak*:

There was, we found, a *leak* in the carburetor; but George soon had *it* stopped. .

In the following sentence, however, the substantive *leak*, though implied, is not definitely expressed; the pronoun



*it*, therefore, has no antecedent, and the sentence is incorrect:

**Incorrect:** The carburetor, we found, was leaking; but George soon had *it* stopped.

Again, a form used as a substantive may be used as an antecedent, but the same form used as an adjective may not be so used. Thus, the word *fire* in the following sentence is a substantive, a proper antecedent for *one*:

After a dry summer, a forest *fire* is always to be feared; but that year, luckily, we did not have *one*.

The same word in the following sentence is an adjective, and therefore it cannot be used as an antecedent:

**Incorrect:** After a dry summer in the forest, the *fire* *menace* is always great; but that year, luckily, we did not have *one*.

2. The antecedent may sometimes be a whole clause, if the relation of clause and pronoun is instantly clear.

*Just then the policeman stumbled and fell, which* gave us a chance to get safely away.

This construction, however, should be used with caution if it is to be used at all, and should never be used if the clause contains a substantive that might be taken for an antecedent. In the following incorrect sentence, for example, the word *jack* seems to be, though it is not intended to be, the antecedent:

**Incorrect:** The mechanic, however, had forgotten his *jack*, *which* caused a still further delay.

3. Antecedent and pronominal word should be so close to each other that the relation between them is instantly clear. In the following passage, for example, the antecedent of *his* is clearly seen to be *patron*:

In those days the success of a book depended largely upon the prestige of a *patron*. *His* name in the dedicatory epistle was in itself a recommendation to the reading public.

In the following passage, however, the separation of the two words obscures the relationship between them :

**Incorrect:** In those days the success of a book depended largely upon the prestige of a *patron*. Indeed, without support thus given, a book could hardly be published at all. *His* name in the dedicatory epistle was in itself a recommendation to the reading public.

4. Sentences should be so constructed that the reader should never be in doubt as to which of two possible antecedents is the one intended. The following sentence, for example, is poorly constructed because *his* might refer either to *Dick* or to *brother* :

**Incorrect:** *Dick* could never agree with his brother as to what *his* rights in the estate were.

In each of the following sentences, however, the relation of *his* to its antecedent is clear :

*Dick* had convictions as to what *his* rights in the estate were, but on that subject his brother could never agree.

Dick had convictions as to what *his brother's* rights in the estate were, but on that subject his brother could never agree.

Placing an antecedent in parentheses, in order to avoid ambiguity of reference, is at best a clumsy device. No careful writer, for example, would solve the problem of ambiguous reference thus :

**Incorrect:** Dick could never agree with his brother as to what *his (the brother's)* rights in the estate were.

For accuracy of reference in pronouns, see Grammatical Problem 6.

**142. Person and Number of the Pronoun.** The person and number of a pronoun having an antecedent are those of its antecedent. The person and number of such a pronoun are not always shown by the form of the word itself, but

they are sometimes shown by the form of the verb with which the pronoun agrees (191).

*I* too, *who am* reading the book, am bored. [1st pers. sing.]

*He* too, *who is* reading the book, is bored. [3rd pers. sing.]

*They* too, *who are* reading the book, are bored. [3rd pers. plu.]

For the correct choice of number in the pronoun, see Grammatical Problem 7.

Note that in expressions like *one of those men who*, the antecedent of the pronoun is *men*, plural, not *one*, singular. For practical application of this principle, see Grammatical Problem 10.

**143. Case of the Pronoun.** The case of a pronoun is always determined by the construction of the pronoun in its own clause, regardless of the case of its antecedent. Sometimes it happens, as in the following sentences, that both antecedent and pronoun have the same case, though for separate reasons:

*Ralph*, *who* borrowed the hammer, is in the garage.

I lent it to *Ralph*, *whom* I met in the garage.

Sometimes it happens, however, that an antecedent is in one case and the pronominal word is in another.

It was *I* *whom* Ralph asked for the hammer.

He borrowed it from *me*, *who* happened to be using it.

He returned it to *me*, *whose* need for it he recognized.

For the case of the pronoun obscured by position, see Grammatical Problem 5.

### Personal Pronouns

**144. Personal Pronouns.** The *Personal Pronouns* are of three kinds: (1) the first person (*I*, *me*, etc.), (2) the second person (*you*, *yours*, etc.), and (3) the third person (*he*, *it*, etc.). The pronouns of the third person are, in the

singular number, of three genders: (1) masculine (*he, him*, etc.), (2) feminine (*she, her*, etc.), and (3) neuter (*it*). For the properties of person and gender, see 123.

**145. Personal Pronouns: Declension.** The declension of the personal pronouns follows:

SINGULAR				
First Person		Second Person		Third Person
			Masc. Fem.	Neut.
<i>Nom.</i> I		you	he	she it
<i>Obj.</i> me		you	him	her it
<i>Poss.</i> mine (my)		yours (your)	his	hers (her) (its)
PLURAL				
			All Genders	
<i>Nom.</i> we		you	they	
<i>Obj.</i> us		you	them	
<i>Poss.</i> ours (our)		yours (your)	theirs (their)	

For the forms in parentheses listed as possessive forms, see 62.

**146. Personal Pronouns: Masculine for Common Gender.** The plural forms of the third personal pronouns (*they, them*) and the possessive *theirs* are the same for all genders, and so can be used as pronouns of common gender (123).

My brothers and sisters were all there. Did you see *them*?

There being no singular pronoun of common gender, the masculine singular pronoun (*he, him*) or the possessive (*his*) is often used as one, to avoid the more cumbrous *he or she, him or her, his or her*.

If a person loses *his* passport, *he* should report the fact without delay.

For the application of this principle, see Grammatical Problem 7.

**147. Personal Pronouns: Special Uses of Neuter Gender.** Though small children and animals are masculine or feminine, they are often referred to by the neuter pronoun *it*.

The baby is awake ; I hear *it* crying.

The neuter pronoun *it* before a linking verb may be used as a pronoun of any gender, person, or number.

*It* was Jack.      *It* was Mary.      *It* was I.      *It* was they.

For the impersonal use of *it* and for its use as an expletive, see 56.

**148. Personal Pronouns: Poetic *Thou*.** The ancient forms of the second personal pronoun, *thou*, *thee*, *ye*, continue to be used in prayer, in verse, and in imitation of archaic speech.

**149. Personal Pronouns: Indefinite Use.** In colloquial speech, pronouns of all three persons may be used without antecedents in the sense of the indefinite *one* (that is, "people in general").

If *we* want scientific fact, *we* know where to go.

*You* hardly ever see a horse on the road these days.

*They* tell us that there will be no more wars.

**150. Personal Pronouns: Possessive Forms and Uses.** Among the inflected forms of the personal pronouns (145) the possessive forms (*mine*, *yours*, etc.) are not inclosed in parentheses. These forms, like those for the nominative and objective cases, have substantive use; that is, they may be used as subjects, objects, etc.

*Mine* cost much less than *yours* cost.

When one of these forms is preceded by *of*, it helps to form the so-called *Double Possessive*.

That is a favorite book *of hers*.

The forms in section 145 inclosed in parentheses are possessive adjectives (62). The apostrophe in *it's* or *who's* always means that the expression is a contraction for *it is* or *who is*.

*It's* certain that *its* price is too high.

*Who's* the man *whose* overcoat was left here?

### Intensive and Reflexive Pronouns

**151. Intensive and Reflexive Pronouns.** The intensive and reflexive pronouns are formed by adding *self* or *selves* to some form of the personal pronoun or to the indefinite pronoun *one*.

The intensive and reflexive pronouns have singular and plural forms (*myself*, *ourselves*; *himself*, *themselves*; etc.), but not case forms. Note especially that the neuter singular form consists of *it* + *self*, and is therefore *itself*. (The incorrect expression *it's self* is a doubling up of errors.) Although the form *one's self* is sometimes used, the shorter form *oneself* is now usually preferred.

**152. Use of Intensive Pronouns.** An *Intensive Pronoun* may be added to a noun or a pronoun for the sake of emphasis.

The manager *himself* pleaded with the men.

I can't understand that *myself*.

**153. Use of Reflexive Pronouns.** A *Reflexive Pronoun* is used in referring back to the subject.

Walter has just cut *himself* badly.

She was singing quietly to *herself*.

**154. Intensive and Reflexive Pronouns: Incorrect Use.** An intensive or a reflexive pronoun should not be used as a personal pronoun is used.

**Incorrect:** George and *myself* finished the work alone.

**Correct:** George and *I* finished the work alone.

### Relative Pronouns

**155. Relative Pronouns.** The important *Relative Pronouns* are *who*, *which*, and *that*. *As* and *but* (*that not*) are occasionally used as relatives.

Of the relative pronouns, only *who* has case forms, and these are the same in the plural as in the singular: nom. *who*; obj. *whom*; poss. *whose*. *Whose* is usually a pronominal adjective (62).

**156. The Relative Pronoun: Function in Clause.** The relative pronoun or adjective always appears in a subordinate clause that is capable of being separated from the clause on which it depends. In its own clause the relative takes the place of a personal pronoun.

I know the lawyer *who* is defending the case.

I know the lawyer (*he* is defending the case).

The man from *whom* I borrowed it wants it back.

The man (I borrowed it from *him*) wants it back.

The captain on *whose* ship we sailed is now dead.

The captain (we sailed on *his* ship) is now dead.

\* This is the house *that* Jack built.

This is the house (Jack built *it*).

If the relative clause is thus separated, with a change of word order when necessary, the function of the relative pronoun or adjective becomes instantly clear.

**157. Relation of Relative Clause to Antecedent.** The relative clause modifies the antecedent of the relative pronoun (139-141) or adjective by answering a significant question about that antecedent.

I know the lawyer *who* is defending the case.

**Lawyer.** Which lawyer? The one *who* is defending the case.

The captain on *whose* ship we sailed is now dead.

**Captain.** Which captain? The one on *whose* ship we sailed.

For the exceptional sentence in which a relative pronoun refers to a whole clause rather than to a substantive, see 141.

**158. Relative Pronouns: Gender.** *Who* is of common gender, *which* is of neuter gender, and the other relative pronouns may be of any gender. *That* is appropriate to an essential clause (98) used in identifying either a person or a thing. *As* may be of any gender.

Colonel Granger, *who* fell in the Argonne, was my uncle.

The rain, *which* fell all day, thoroughly drenched us.

He is a man *that* can be trusted.

It is a tool *that* can be relied on.

Send me such bulbs *as* you sold to Mr. Claybaugh.

*Whose* used to be a neuter, as well as a masculine or feminine, possessive. Today *of which* is commonly used after a neuter antecedent.

It was a car the sturdiness *of which* attracted me.

When, however, the use of *of which* would be awkward, *whose* is to be preferred as a neuter possessive. In the following sentences, for example, contrast the clumsiness of the first with the comparative smoothness of the second:

**Clumsy:** It was a car the way of using up gasoline *of which* discouraged me.

**Smooth:** It was a car *whose* way of using up gasoline discouraged me.

**159. Relative Pronouns: Number and Person.** For the number and person of relative pronouns, see 142.

**160. Relative Pronouns: Case.** For the case of the relative pronoun in its own clause, see 143.

### Compound Relative Pronouns

**161. Compound Relative Pronouns.** The important *Compound Relative Pronouns* are *whoever* (*whomever*, *whosever*), *whichever*, and *whatever*. *What*, though not compound in



form, is classed with the compound relatives because of similarity of function (162). Forms ending in *soever* (*who-soever*, etc.) also belong to this class.

The compounds formed on *who* have forms for case but not for number. The other compound relatives are not declined.

**162. Compound Relative Pronouns: Function.** Compound relative pronouns combine in one word two functions: (1) that of an antecedent and (2) that of a relative pronoun. Thus, compare the following sentences:

*Anyone who* would do that is a coward.

*Whoever* would do that is a coward.

He doesn't remember the *thing which* he was reading.

He doesn't remember *what* he was reading.

**163. Compound Relative Pronouns: Case.** The compound relative pronoun is a part of the relative clause, not of the main clause, and therefore takes the case required by its own clause, regardless of the case of its unexpressed antecedent.

He could appear to be *the one* [nom.] *whom* [obj.] he chose to imitate.

He could appear to be *whomever* [obj.] he chose to imitate.

Sometimes a compound relative pronoun is so placed that words not belonging to its clause influence a writer to put the pronoun into the wrong case. The corrective is to disregard such an influence and to use the case required by the clause in which the pronoun stands. Thus, in the following sentence the object of the verb *ask* is not the compound relative pronoun that immediately follows it, but the whole clause introduced by that pronoun; and since the pronoun is the subject in that clause, it is in the nominative case.

**Ask** *whoever calls me on the telephone* for his name.

Similarly, in the following sentence the object of the preposition *to* is not the compound relative that immediately follows it, but the whole clause introduced by that pronoun; and in that clause the pronoun is a subject, in the nominative case.

Give it to *whoever needs it most*.

For the case of the compound relative pronoun, see Grammatical Problem 5.

**164. Compound Relative Adjectives.** The forms *which-ever*, *whatever*, and *what* may have adjective use.

Take *whichever chair* suits you best.

### Interrogative Pronouns

**165. Interrogative Pronouns.** The *Interrogative Pronouns* are *who*, *which*, and *what*.

*Who* has forms for case (*who*, *whom*, *whose*), but not for number. *Which* and *what* are not declined.

**166. Interrogative Pronouns: Function.** Interrogative pronouns are used in asking questions, both direct and indirect (75-76).

**Direct:** *Who* is playing fullback?

**Indirect:** I don't know *who* is playing fullback.

**167. Interrogative vs. Relative Pronouns.** It is not always easy to distinguish an interrogative pronoun in an indirect question and a relative pronoun in a relative clause. If the pronoun implies a question, it is interrogative; if it makes a statement about an antecedent, it is relative.

**Interrogative:** *Who* most deserved it?

**Interrogative:** He thought he knew *who* most deserved it.

**Relative:** The *one who* most deserved it got the prize.

**Interrogative:** *Which* did he buy?

**Interrogative:** I wonder *which* he bought.

**Relative:** He returned the *one which* he had bought.

**168. Interrogative Pronouns: Case.** The word order of an interrogative sentence sometimes influences a writer to use the nominative case when the construction of the sentence requires the objective case. The fact that the pronoun comes first in the sentence does not necessarily mean that it is the subject of the verb.

*Whom* did you see?

*Whom* did you give it to?

The fact that a clause like *do you suppose* may be inserted in an interrogative sentence does not mean that the case of the interrogative pronoun is affected by the verb of the inserted clause. In the following sentence, for example, *who* is the subject of *notified*, not the object of *suppose*.

*Who* do you suppose *notified* the police?

For the case of the interrogative pronoun, see Grammatical Problem 5.

**169. Interrogative Adjectives.** The interrogatives *which*, *what*, and *whose* (62) may have adjective use. Compare the following sentences:

**Substantive:** *Which* would you rather have?

**Adjective:** *Which car* would you rather have?

### Demonstrative Pronouns

**170. Demonstrative Pronouns.** The *Demonstrative Pronouns* are *this* and *that*. They are called demonstrative because they "point out."

*This* and *that* have plural forms, *these* and *those*, but not forms for case.

**171. Demonstrative Adjectives.** The demonstratives may have adjective use. Compare the following sentences:

**Substantive:** *This* is far too dark.

**Adjective:** *This print* is far too dark.

**172. Demonstrative Adjectives: Number after *Kind* and *Sort*.** The use of a plural noun after the singular word *kind* or *sort* should not attract the demonstrative *this* or *that* to a plural form. Compare the following sentences:

Are chrysanthemums of *this kind* hard to raise?

Is *this kind* of chrysanthemum hard to raise?

He had always disliked people of *that sort*.

He had always disliked *that sort* of people.

### Indefinite Pronouns

**173. Indefinite Pronouns.** The words *each*, *everyone*, *everybody*, *everything*, *any*, *anyone*, *anybody*, *anything*, *some*, *someone*, *somebody*, *something*, *one*, *either*, *neither*, *no one*, *none*, *another*, *each other*, *one another*, and a few similar words are commonly classed as *Indefinite Pronouns*.

*Anyone*, *everyone*, and *someone*, it should be noted, are written as single words unless a special emphasis falls on the word *one*. Thus, compare the following sentences:

Did *anyone* here see the accident?

I could not get *any one* of them to testify.

*Others* (possessive *others'*) is used as the plural of *another* (possessive *another's*). Similarly, *the other* (possessive, *the other's*) has as its plural *the others* (possessive *the others'*). *One* (possessive *one's*) has no plural, but *the one* has as its plural *the ones*. *Each other* and *one another* have the possessive forms, *each other's* and *one another's*, and pronouns ending in *body* (e. g., *everybody*) have possessive forms (e. g., *everybody's*). Of the two forms, *everybody's else* and *everybody else's*, the latter is considered preferable.

It will be noticed that the possessive forms given above are written with apostrophes. For other possessive forms see 62.

**174. Indefinites: Number.** Certain indefinites are always singular. If they are subjects of verbs, the verbs should be singular, and if possessives refer to them, those possessives should be singular also. The list follows: *each, either, neither, anyone, anybody, anything, everyone, everybody, everything, someone, somebody, something*. *Every* is used only with singular nouns.

*Every member was eager to enter his dog in the show.*

*Each dog entered was given his number.*

*Anybody who was late at the judging forfeited his chance.*

*Everybody was certain that his own dog would win.*

*None* is singular when it implies *not one*. It can, however, be used in the plural in the sense of *not any*.

*None of the bandits has yet been apprehended.*

*None of last year's team are certain of their places on the first squad.*

For the number of a pronoun having a singular antecedent, see Grammatical Problem 7.

For the number of a verb having an indefinite pronoun as subject or as antecedent of its subject, see Grammatical Problem 9.

**175. Indefinites: Use.** Certain of the indefinites can be used either as pronouns or as adjectives.

*Each of the defendants was found guilty.*

*Each defendant was found guilty.*

One of the indefinites, *every*, is used only as an adjective.

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 123-175

### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. In the sentence *That's him*, how is *him* accounted for grammatically? Is the construction correct or incorrect? Why?

2. Since every noun has but one form for both nominative and objective cases, it would be possible (as some grammarians do) to

speak of but one case, called common, that combines the functions here divided between two cases. What is the practical advantage of distinguishing nominative functions and objective functions in all substantives?

3. Why may a question be raised as to the grammatical number of the word *team*? Name a few words like it.

4. If the possessive plural of *boy* is *boys'*, why is not the possessive plural of *man* *mens'*?

5. Why is *conscience'* *sake* preferred to *conscience's sake*?

6. Frame a sentence in which the word *family* should be treated as a singular noun. Frame another in which its number should be plural.

7. Is there reason for using one form of expression in *The man's leg was broken* and another in *The leg of the chair was broken*?

8. Why should *he* require an antecedent, when *you* and *I* do not?

9. Criticize the use of *it* in the following sentence: *All enjoyed themselves, but it was too soon over.*

10. In the sentence *A polo match is exciting to watch, but it is considered a dangerous sport*, is the use of *it* correct? Why?

11. Contrast the use of *which* in the following sentences: *In the very first game I broke my leg, which prevented me from playing all that season. In the very first game I broke my leg, which did not heal till the season was over.*

12. Reconstruct the following sentence so that it shall express one clear meaning: *Harry quarreled with Martin because he wanted to pay all the expenses of the trip.*

13. In the sentence *The boys who saw the accident described it to me, who drove up a minute later*, what is the number and person of each *who*?

14. Is *who* in the following sentence singular or plural? *He called to one of the men who stood on the shore.*

15. In the sentence *Every voter must sign the register before casting his ballot*, is the use of *his* correct? Why?

16. What is the meaning of *we* in the following sentence? *We must all die sooner or later.* Frame a sentence in which the same pronoun has a different meaning.

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17. Explain, by means of the following sentence, the difference between the substantive and the adjective use of the possessive: *My tires are guaranteed to last longer than yours have lasted.*

18. Frame sentences in which *it's* and *its* are correctly used.

19. In the sentence *The Fanning brothers will play against Cecil and myself*, what kind of pronoun is used? Is it correct? Why?

20. Explain, by means of the following sentence, the function (1) of the relative clause and (2) of the relative adjective: *The lawyer whose house we had rented was an old classmate of mine.*

21. Which of the following sentences is correct, and why? *I talked with the boy who you recommended. I talked with the boy whom you recommended.*

22. In the sentence *What I mean is this*, show how the function of *what* determines its case.

23. Is the case of the compound relative in the following sentence correct? Why? *Give the package to whoever comes to the door.*

24. If the following sentence needs correction, show how and why it should be changed: *Whom do you think will win?*

25. Choose between the forms in parentheses and explain your choice. *I like (this, these) kind of cherries best.*

26. Is *Each wore the other's hat* correct? Why?

27. Supply pronominal adjectives for the dashes in the following sentences, and explain your choices: *They all came in carrying ----- shoes in ----- hands. Each man came in carrying ----- shoes in ----- hand.*

### EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Properties of the Substantive.** What are the gender, person, and number of each italicized substantive in the following sentences?

[EXAMPLE. I gave my *nephew* a trip to Europe.]  
[*Nephew* is of masculine gender, third person, singular number.]

1. What are *you* doing, Frances, with those *scissors*?

2. The *judge* had his basket full of *fish*.

3. Every *student* in the grades must study *mathematics*.
4. A *herd* of *cows* was pastured in the *meadow*.

**General Case Uses.** What is the case of each substantive in the following sentences? Why?

[EXAMPLE. *Tell me what you think about it. Me is* objective, indirect object of *tell*; *what* is objective, direct object of *think*; *you* is nominative, subject of *think*; *it* is objective, object of the preposition *about*.]

1. Did you ask him to telegraph you his reply?
2. His niece proved to be a girl whom I had always wanted to know.
3. I asked Joan Pelham, my sister's chum, to be my partner at bridge.
4. Since the dance was over by midnight, we returned home in good season.

**The Noun.** What kinds of nouns appear in the following sentences, and how is each used?

[EXAMPLE. *What is the news, Doctor? News* is a common noun, plural in form but singular in use, nominative case, subject of *is*; *Doctor* is a proper noun, nominative case, as word of address.]

1. A regiment of marines was passing the President at the time.
2. The horses' hoofs, luckily, did not strike him.
3. The professor of physics was an expert at billiards.
4. To see Hobson's sister skate was a thing to remember.

**Pronouns and Their Antecedents.** In the following sentence what is the antecedent of each pronoun or pronominal adjective, and what is its gender, person, and number?

[EXAMPLE. *The baby had evidently lost its way. The* antecedent of *its* is *baby*; neuter, third person, singular.]

1. Nobody who cares for his health drinks that river water.
2. To advance seemed foolhardy, but it was the only thing we could do.



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3. Anybody who wishes may put his name down for the tournament.

4. Davies was becoming more and more nervous, and that didn't help my own self-possession.

**Cases of Pronouns and Their Antecedents.** What is the case of each pronoun, and why? What is the case of each antecedent, and why?

[EXAMPLE. *The minister who had married them was long since dead. Who*, in the nominative case, is the subject of *had married*. *Minister*, in the nominative case, is the subject of *was*.

1. The woman who had lost the car recovered it through an advertisement.

2. Was the house that you bought mortgaged?

3. Where is that new hotel of which you were speaking?

4. Anybody who believes that shows how credulous he is.

**Personal Pronouns.** What is the function of each of the personal pronouns in the following sentences?

[EXAMPLE. *When Mac's lawn-mower was out of order, he always borrowed mine. He*, with *Mac* as antecedent, is the subject of *borrowed*; *mine* is a possessive pronoun, the object of *borrowed*.

1. The ship was comfortable, but she was too slow to suit us.

2. Ye have not chosen me, but I have chosen you. — Bible

3. The puppy attracted us, but we decided not to buy it.

4. It was that cow of theirs on our lawn again.

**Intensive and Reflexive Pronouns.** Of the intensive and reflexive pronouns in the following sentences, to what class does each belong, and what is its use?

[EXAMPLE. *Don't fool yourself. Yourself* is a reflexive pronoun, the object of *do fool*, and refers to *you*, understood, subject of *fool*.

1. If you can't do it yourself, ask Parsons to help you.

2. The officers themselves had scarcely enough to eat.

3. The radio, as the advertisement says, speaks for itself.
4. The gods help those who help themselves.

**Relative Pronouns.** In the following sentences, what is the function of each relative pronoun and of the clause in which it stands?

[EXAMPLE. *I used such skill as I had.* Compare *I used the skill that I had.* *As* is the object of *had*; the clause (*such*) *as I had* is an adjective clause modifying *skill*.]

1. The man who owned the boat had a wooden leg.
2. That coin that you showed me yesterday is a counterfeit.
3. These goods are practically the same as those which you bought.
4. Only those who came early found seats.

**Compound Relative Pronouns.** In the following sentences, what is the function of each compound relative pronoun, and of the clause in which it stands?

[EXAMPLE. *Is what you tell me really true?* *What* is the object of *tell*; the clause *what you tell me* is the subject of *is*.]

1. Whatever he attempted always succeeded.
2. I shall gladly dance with whomever you suggest.
3. He would never tell us what he thought of his chief.
4. Whoever went there once always returned.

**Interrogatives.** Which are the interrogatives in the following sentences, and what is the function of each?

[EXAMPLE. *Who should you say would make the best president?* *Who* is an interrogative pronoun, the subject of *would make*.]

1. Of whom were you speaking when I joined you?
2. We couldn't decide whom to ask to speak.
3. Whose dog is making all that noise?
4. Whom do you suppose he will bring with him?

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**Demonstrative Pronouns.** Which are the demonstrative pronouns in the following sentences, and what is the function of each?

[EXAMPLE. *That was more than I could stand. That is* ]  
[a demonstrative pronoun, the subject of *was*.]

1. With these I can amuse myself for hours.
2. I don't believe that I should like that.
3. If those are too big, try these.
4. This we decided to do without further delay.

**Indefinites.** Which are the indefinites in the following sentences, what is the number of each, and what is the function of each?

[EXAMPLE. *Everyone nowadays knows at least something about a car. Everyone* is an indefinite pronoun, singular, subject of *knows*. *Something* is an indefinite pronoun, singular, object of *knows*.]

1. One has no right to pry into another's affairs.
2. Everybody was getting into everybody else's way.
3. Neither of us had brought cups, and none were to be had at the store.
4. Of the eggs that everybody had ordered soft-boiled, every one was boiled hard.

**Possessives.** Which are the possessives in the following sentences, what word does each modify, and what is the antecedent (if there is any) of each?

[EXAMPLE. *Cosgrove lent his bathing-suit to my brother.* *His* is a possessive adjective modifying *bathing-suit*, with *Cosgrove* as antecedent. *My* is a possessive adjective modifying *brother*; it has no antecedent.]

1. Our car easily held all their baggage.
2. If everyone minds his own business, all will be happy.
3. The printer whose address you gave me has not yet answered my letter.
4. I prefer my rifle, for yours is too heavy.

**Pronominal Adjectives.** Which are the pronominal adjectives in the following sentences, to what class does each belong, and what word does it modify?

[EXAMPLE. *Any one of those dogs is worth fifty dollars.*  
*Any* is an indefinite pronominal adjective modifying *one*. *Those* is a demonstrative pronominal adjective modifying *dogs*.]

1. What fresh vegetables have you this morning?
2. Each one of them wore one of those berets that were then in vogue.
3. Which dealer sells this kind of blackberries?
4. Whatever toy he wanted, some adoring aunt was sure to give him.

#### TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow.

[EXAMPLE. *Demonstrative pronominal adjective: Those*  
*cows are in the corn again.*]

1. A common noun
2. A proper noun
3. A collective noun
4. A personal pronoun
5. A possessive pronoun
6. An intensive pronoun
7. A reflexive pronoun
8. A relative pronoun
9. A compound relative pronoun
10. A compound relative adjective
11. An interrogative pronoun
12. An interrogative adjective
13. A demonstrative pronoun
14. A demonstrative adjective

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15. An indefinite pronoun
16. An indefinite adjective
17. A personal pronoun of first person, plural
18. A personal pronoun of third person, neuter singular
19. A personal pronoun, possessive case, used as substantive
20. A masculine personal pronoun expressing common gender
21. A personal pronoun with personal pronoun as antecedent
22. A relative pronoun with personal pronoun as antecedent
23. A relative pronoun having the same case as its antecedent
24. A relative pronoun and its antecedent, each in a different case

## THE VERB: FORMS AND USES

### Properties of the Verb

**176. The Verb and the Verbal.** Since verbals, strictly considered, are parts of verbs, the complete chart of inflections of any verb includes the verbal forms. In use, however, verbals have distinctive characteristics, and for this reason it is convenient to discuss the verb here and the verbal later (218-236).

**177. Properties of the Verb.** The properties of the verb are person, number, tense, mood, and voice.

**178. Person.** *Person* distinguishes the person speaking, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken about.

**First person:** I *am* wrong.

**Second person:** You *are* wrong.

**Third person:** He (she, it) *is* wrong.

**179. Number.** *Number* distinguishes whether the subject of a verb is singular or plural.

**Singular number:** He *has* little judgment.

**Plural number:** They *have* little judgment.

**180. Tense.** *Tense* distinguishes the time of a verb. There are six tenses, as follows:

**Present tense:** I *am* ill now.

**Past tense:** I *was* ill last month.

**Future tense:** I *shall be* ill if this weather keeps up.

**Present perfect tense:** I *have been* ill for two weeks.

**Past perfect tense:** I *had been* ill before he came.

**Future perfect tense:** Tomorrow I *shall have been* ill two weeks.

**181. Mood.** *Mood* distinguishes the manner in which the verb expresses action or being.

**Indicative mood:** He *is* quiet.

**Subjunctive mood:** If he *were* quiet, I could study.

**Imperative mood:** *Be* quiet, please.

**182. Voice.** *Voice* distinguishes whether the subject acts or is acted upon.

**Active voice:** He *told* me all about it.

**Passive voice:** He *was told* about it by his sister.

### Inflection of the Verb

**183. Inflection of the Verb: Conjugation.** Changes in the form of a verb to show person, number, tense, etc., are known as *Inflections* of the verb. Thus, *shouts, shouted, and had shouted* are inflections of *shout*; and *lies, lay, lain, and shall lie* are inflections of *lie*. In many cases the form of the verb does not show its exact use. Thus, the single form *had shouted* is used for all three persons and both numbers (*I had shouted, you had shouted, etc.*). A table setting forth all the forms of a given verb for person, number, tense, etc., constitutes the *Conjugation* of that verb.

**184. Principal Parts of the Verb.** The forms of a verb used in its conjugation may be determined if three forms are known: (1) the present tense, (2) the past tense, and (3) the past participle. Thus, from the forms *ride, rode, and ridden* the conjugation of the verb *ride* may be determined. On account of their importance for conjugation, the three forms mentioned are called the *Principal Parts* of a verb. A simple way of determining the principal parts of any verb is to introduce the first two forms with the pronoun *I*, and the third with the words *I have*; thus, (*I*) *do, (I) did, (I have) done*.

**185. Regular Verbs.** A verb is called *Regular* if its past tense and past participle are formed by the addition of *éd*, *d*, or *t* to the present-tense form. The principal parts of typical regular verbs follow :

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
select	selected	selected
fill	filled	filled
examine	examined	examined
spoil	spoiled (spoilt)	spoiled (spoilt)

**186. Irregular Verbs.** A verb is called *Irregular* if its past tense and past participle are formed in some other way than by the addition of *ed*, *d*, or *t*. The principal parts of certain irregular verbs follow :

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
see	saw	seen
write	wrote	written
buy	bought	bought
burst	burst	burst

It is especially important to master the irregular verbs listed in sections 193 and 194.

**187. Lie and Lay, Sit and Set, Rise and Raise.** Three pairs of verbs need to be used with special care if the right forms are to be used for the intended meanings.

*Lie* (*lie, lay, lain*), with present participle *lying*, is a complete verb meaning "to recline." *Lay* (*lay, laid, laid*), with present participle *laying*, is a transitive verb meaning "to cause to lie," or "to place." The transitive verb *lay* is used idiomatically in *She lays the table*.

He *lies* there now, on his hospital cot.

He *is lying* there now, on his hospital cot.

He *lay* on the ground for an hour, helpless.

How long *has* he *lain* there?



*Lay* him down gently.

Who *laid* him here?

Why *have* you *laid* him there?

*Sit* (*sit, sat, sat*), with present participle *sitting*, is a complete verb. *Set* (*set, set, set*), with present participle *setting*, is a transitive verb meaning "to cause to sit," or "to place." The transitive verb is used idiomatically in *She sets the table*. Such usages as *The sun sets* and *The tide is setting in* are exceptional. One *sets* a hen, and the hen *sits* on her eggs; a *sitting hen* is preferable to a *setting hen*.

She *had been sitting* there an hour.

How long *has* she *sat* there?

*Set* the bundle here.

*Rise* (*rise, rose, risen*), with present participle *rising*, is a complete verb meaning "to get up." *Raise* (*raise, raised, raised*), with present participle *raising*, is a transitive verb meaning "to cause to rise," or "to lift." For the distinction between *raise* and *rear*, see 345.

The temperature *is rising* rapidly.

He *rose* slowly to his feet.

*Raise* the window, please.

For distinctions in the use of the verbs treated in this section, see Grammatical Problem 18.

**188. Conjugation of *Be, Have, and Do*.** The verbs *be, have, and do* are especially important, for they are used both as independent verbs and as auxiliaries (16) in the conjugation of other verbs.

**Independent:** Collins *was* an arrant hypocrite.

**Auxiliary:** Collins *was considered* an arrant hypocrite.

**Independent:** Collins *had* a bad reputation.

**Auxiliary:** Collins *had acquired* a bad reputation.

**Independent:** Collins *did* me a bad turn.

**Auxiliary:** *Did* you *hear* how Collins treated me?

The present-tense and past-tense forms of these three verbs follow :

### The Verb *Be*

PRESENT		PAST	
Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1. I am	We are	I was	We were
2. You are	You are	You were	You were
3. He is	They are	He was	They were

### The Verb *Have*

1. I have	We have	I had	We had
2. You have	You have	You had	You had
3. He has	They have	He had	They had

### The Verb *Do*

1. I do	We do	I did	We did
2. You do	You do	You did	You did
3. He does	They do	He did	They did

Note especially that *you were* (not *you was*) is correct; also that the singular *does* (not the plural *do*) is correct in such expressions as *doesn't he*, *doesn't it* (not *don't he*, *don't it*).

**189. Progressive and Emphatic Conjugations.** By the use of various forms of the auxiliary *be*, a so-called *Progressive Conjugation* can be built up, representing action as going on at the time referred to. In the sentences that follow, forms of the regular conjugation of the verb *draw* appear in the first column, and corresponding forms of the progressive conjugation appear in the second column.

He <i>draws</i> faces.	He <i>is drawing</i> faces.
He <i>drew</i> charcoal sketches.	He <i>was drawing</i> charcoal sketches.
He <i>has drawn</i> house plans.	He <i>has been drawing</i> house plans.
He <i>was drawn</i> by Mr. Cox.	He <i>was being drawn</i> by Mr. Cox.

By means of various forms of the auxiliary *do*, a so-called *Emphatic Conjugation* can be built up. Thus, compare the regular verb forms with the emphatic verb forms in the following sentences:

I <i>like</i> Stilton cheese.	I <i>do like</i> Stilton cheese.
I <i>tried</i> to like it.	I <i>did try</i> to like it.

Forms of the emphatic conjugation are used — without, however, an effect of emphasis — in asking questions and in making negative statements.

Do you <i>like</i> Stilton cheese?	No, I <i>do not</i> [ <i>like</i> it].
Did you <i>try</i> to like it?	No, I <i>did not</i> [ <i>try</i> to like it].

**190. Conjugation of the Modal Auxiliaries.** The conjugation of the so-called *Modal Auxiliaries* is incomplete, or defective. Certain of them have but two forms, one originally the present tense and the other originally the past tense, as follows: *can* — *could*, *may* — *might*, *shall* — *should*, *will* — *would*. *Must* has but one form, used normally for the present tense. *Ought*, when followed by a present infinitive, with *to*, expresses present time (We *ought to go* now); when followed by the past infinitive, it expresses past time (We *ought to have gone* an hour ago). The auxiliary *had* should never be used before *ought*.

For different meanings expressed by the modal auxiliaries, see 213.

**191. Person and Number of Verb.** A verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

*He was* none too successful as a student.  
*They were* none too successful as students.

For special applications of this rule, see Grammatical Problems 8, 9, and 10.

## Tense: Forms and Uses

**192. The Present Tense.** The present-tense forms of the verb are used for expressing (1) action or being in present time, (2) timeless truths, and (3) habitual action. Sometimes they are used as well for expressing future action.

**Present action:** He *reads* intently.

**Present being:** He *is* too busy to notice us.

**Timeless truth:** The tides *rise* here to extraordinary heights.

**Habitual action:** He *leaves* his house every morning at seven o'clock.

**Future action** { *I go* first to Chicago, then to Denver and Omaha.  
Next year I *am going to travel* by the Panama Canal.

**193. Past Tense: Forms.** A past tense is single, not compound in form. Thus, *I drank, I bought, I crept*.

The past-tense form of a verb is the second of the three principal parts; the past participle is the third. In some verbs the same form is used for both past tense and past participle (*I led, I have led; I brought, I have brought*). If a verb, however, has separate forms for the two, care must be taken not to use the past participle in place of the past-tense form. Thus, in the following eight verbs the past-tense form is the one spelled with *a*, not with *u*:

begin, began, begun	sing, sang, sung
drink, drank, drunk	sink, sank, sunk
ring, rang, rung	spring, sprang, sprung
shrink, shrank, shrunk	swim, swam, swum

In the following verbs, as well, the past-tense forms should be carefully noted:

come, came, come	run, ran, run
do, did, done	see, saw, seen

**194. Present Perfect Tense: Forms.** A present-perfect-tense form is a verb-phrase made up of the auxiliary *have*

(or *has*) and the past participle of the verb. Thus, *I have drunk, I have bought, I have crept*. If a verb has separate forms for the past tense and the past participle, care must be taken not to use the past-tense form in place of the past participle. In the following verbs the forms for the past participle should be carefully noted:

beat, beat, beaten	go, went, gone
break, broke, broken	shake, shook, shaken
choose, chose, chosen	show, showed, shown
drive, drove, driven	speak, spoke, spoken
eat, ate, eaten	steal, stole, stolen
forget, forgot, forgotten	take, took, taken
forsake, forsook, forsaken	tear, tore, torn
freeze, froze, frozen	wear, wore, worn

**195. Past Perfect Tense: Forms.** A past-perfect-tense form is a verb-phrase made up of the auxiliary *had* and the past participle of the verb. As in the case of the present perfect tense, care should be taken not to use the past-tense form in place of the past participle (194).

**196. Past Tense vs. Present Perfect Tense: Use.** The past tense expresses action or being in the indefinite past. Whether such action or being is thought of as occupying a point of time or a duration of time, the implication is that the action or being was completed, as well as begun, in the past.

Then I *pulled* the trigger.

We *spent* the next winter in Geneva.

The present perfect tense normally expresses action or being begun in past time and extending to present time.

Ever since that night he *has been* afraid of ghosts.

We *have lived* here for the past four years.

The substitution of past-tense forms, *was* and *lived*, in these sentences would imply completed action, in contradiction of the plain intent of the sentences.

For the correct choice of these forms, see Grammatical Problem 11.

**197. Past Tense vs. Past Perfect Tense.** The past perfect tense expresses action or being completed before some point in past time. That point of time may be designated by a verb in the past tense, or it may be merely implied.

*I had been fooled* so often that now *I was* on my guard.

*We had* never before *spent* a winter on the Continent.

The substitution of past-tense forms, *was fooled* and *spent*, in these sentences would obscure the intended meaning — namely, that the action of the verbs took place before a point in past time.

For the correct choice of tense forms, see Grammatical Problem 11.

**198. Meaning of "Futurity."** A verb is said to express *Futurity* if it predicts action or being in future time.

The banks *will be closed*, as usual, on Labor Day.

The tide *will be* high at noon tomorrow.

A verb asserting expectation of future action or being is also said to express futurity.

We *shall* probably *arrive* in Liverpool on Tuesday afternoon.

Jack *will* probably *be* at the dock to meet us.

The auxiliaries *shall* (*should*) and *will* (*would*), when used primarily to express prediction or expectation, are tense auxiliaries.

For problems in the expression of futurity, see Grammatical Problems 14, 15, and 16.

**199. Meaning of "Modal Use."** Auxiliaries, besides indicating tense, may also be used to indicate the manner in which a verb expresses action or being. An auxiliary so used is called a modal auxiliary. (For a list of modal auxiliaries and their meanings, see 213.) *Shall* (*should*) and *will*

(*would*), when not used as tense auxiliaries, may be used to express the will of the speaker — that is, his determination, as in a command or threat, or his willingness, as in a promise. When an auxiliary thus expresses manner, it is said to have *Modal Use*.

**Determination:** You *shall* not enter without a ticket.

**Determination:** He *shall* pay dearly for that.

**Willingness:** I *would* do anything in the world to help you.

**Willingness:** They *shall* have a hearing whenever they wish one.

The auxiliaries used in these sentences, it will be noticed, may carry an implication of future time, but their special emphasis is upon the determination or willingness of the speaker.

**200. *Shall* and *Will* Expressing Futurity.** The following table shows how *shall* and *will* are used in expressing futurity:

Singular	Plural
1. I shall	We shall
2. You will	You will
3. He (she, it) will	They will

I *shall* continue my studies abroad next year.

You *will* receive your bill in tomorrow's mail.

He *will* come of age in December.

For the expression of futurity by present-tense forms, see 192.

**201. *Should* and *Would* Expressing Futurity.** The following table shows how *should* and *would* are used in expressing futurity:

Singular	Plural
1. I should	We should
2. You would	You would
3. He (she, it) would	They would

If I could afford to do so, I *should study* abroad.

You *would not be* likely to find him at home.

He *would be* most happy to have your support.

**202. *Should* in a Conditional Clause Expressed Doubtfully.** In a clause expressing a condition of doubtful probability, *should* is used in all three persons.

If I *should arrive* first, how long shall I wait for you?

If you *should arrive* first, wait for me.

If he *should arrive* first, he will wait for us.

**203. *Shall* and *Will* in Modal Use.** Determination or willingness is expressed by *will* in the first person.

**Determination:** I *will not give up*.

**Willingness:** We *will consent*, on one condition.

Determination or willingness is expressed by *shall* in the second and third persons. In military orders, however, *will* is used instead of *shall*.

**Determination:** You *shall not desert* us now.

**Willingness:** He *shall have* an apology in writing.

For the modal use of *shall* and *will*, see Grammatical Problem 17.

**204. *Should* and *Would* in Modal Use.** Determination or willingness is expressed by *would* in the first person.

**Determination:** I *would never consent* to his paying.

**Willingness:** We *would consider* any reasonable plan.

The will of the speaker is emphasized by *should* in the second and third persons.

You *should be made* to apologize, if I were in his place.

He *should be made* to apologize, if I were in your place.

For other modal uses of *should* and *would*, see 213 and Grammatical Problem 17.

**205. *Shall* and *Will* with *Like to*, etc.** If willingness is expressed by a verb such as *like* or by an adjective such as



*glad*, the auxiliary expressing futurity should be used; otherwise willingness is clumsily repeated, as in *I am willing to like* or *I am willing to be glad*.

We *should like* to have you join our club.

I *shall be* glad to help you.

You *will be* delighted to hear of my success.

An adverb like *gladly*, however, merely emphasizes what the verb expresses; therefore with such an adverb a verb form expressing willingness is appropriate.

I *will* gladly *help* you to the best of my ability.

**206. Usefulness of Distinguishing *Shall* and *Will*.** Some writers, on the plea of simplicity, are disposed to use *will* (*would*) for futurity in the first person as well as in the second and third persons. A simple rule is in itself, of course, better than a complex one, but simplicity is not a real gain if it is at the cost of expressiveness. Following established usage with regard to *shall* and *will* makes a writer's intent clear; disregarding such usage may make it obscure. Consider, for example, this sentence:

I *will* not *return* home before Saturday.

According to established usage, *will* here implies determination. If the writer uses it merely to express an expectation, he puzzles, if he does not actually mislead, his reader. Consider, too, this sentence:

We *would* thus *have* two hard games on successive Saturdays.

*Would have* here implies "wish to have," as it does in the following sentence: *We would have the entertainment entirely informal*. If the writer, however, considers the plan for the games undesirable, he leaves the reader in doubt as to his attitude, if not actually deceived concerning it.

The correct use of *shall* (*should*) with the first person is further illustrated in clauses of indirect discourse. When a

speaker quotes indirectly a statement made about himself, he should change any *will* or *would* in the original quoted statement to *shall* or *should*.

JACK TO HARRY: "You *will* be late."

HARRY TO ANOTHER: "Jack says I *shall* be late."

For the ways of using *shall* (*should*) and *will* (*would*) under various circumstances so as to bring out the user's intention, see Grammatical Problems 14, 15, 16, and 17.

**207. Future Perfect Tense.** A future-perfect-tense form is a verb-phrase made up of the auxiliary *shall* or *will* followed by *have* and the past participle. The rules for *shall* and *will* in the future tense (200) apply also to the future perfect tense. The future perfect tense expresses action or being thought of as completed at some point in future time.

I *shall have finished* my part before he begins his.

He *will have gone* before your train comes in.

### Mood: Forms and Uses

**208. The Indicative Mood.** A verb that expresses a fact or an idea treated as if it were a fact is in the *Indicative Mood*.

The snow *is* still *falling*.

*Has* it not *stopped* yet?

How hard it *snows*!

If it *continues* to snow, we shall have to change our plans.

I hope that it *will stop* soon.

I suspect, however, that it *will go* on for another day.

This storm *will never stop*!

Most of the verb forms in common use are indicative forms. Indeed, a verb form in any tense is assumed to be in the indicative mood unless the contrary is stated. Thus, all the forms of *be*, *have*, and *do* listed in section 188 and all the tense forms mentioned in sections 192-207 are in the indicative mood.

**209. The Imperative Mood.** The *Imperative Mood* is the mood of command or request.

*Come here.* *Leave him alone.*  
*Stay for luncheon.* *Run!*

It will be noted, however, that command or request may also be expressed by the indicative mood.

You *shall* not *disturb* him.

The imperative verb form is the simple root form that, preceded by *to*, is used also for the present infinitive (*be, go, stop*, etc.). It is always in the present tense and in the second person, the same form being used for both singular and plural. Its subject is usually, but not always, unexpressed.

*Come here.* *All come here.*

The passive imperative consists of *be* followed by a past participle.

*Be vaccinated* without delay.

The imperative *do* followed by an infinitive without *to* forms an emphatic or a negative imperative.

*Do stay* longer. *Do not fail* to come early.

**210. The Subjunctive Mood: Forms.** Distinctive forms of the *Subjunctive Mood* are found in the verb *be*. The most important are here set forth, preceded in each instance by *if*.

PRESENT		PAST	
Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1. If I be	If we be	If I were	If we were
2. If you be	If you be	If you were	If you were
3. If he be	If they be	If he were	If they were

In other active verbs the only distinctive subjunctive form that is important to notice is the third person singular of the present tense, which is the same as that of the first person.

Heaven *help* you!

God *save* the king!

For past-tense forms with subjunctive uses, see 212.

**211. The Subjunctive Mood: Uses.** The subjunctive is used in independent sentences or clauses to express prayer or an earnest wish.

Peace *be* to you.

Oh that he *were* here!

The subjunctive is used also in subordinate clauses, after conjunctions like *if*, *unless*, *lest*, *as if*, *as though*, to express an idea as doubtful or contrary to fact.

If you *were* in his place, what should you do?

Unless he *help* us, we can accomplish nothing.

Take care, lest he *betray* you.

Smithers always acts as if he *were* bored.

Note that in certain idiomatic constructions the conjunction may be omitted, the clause being introduced by the subjunctive verb.

*Were* I consulted, I should advise against it.

*Be* that as it may, the scheme is a good one.

**212. Past-Tense Forms with Subjunctive Uses.** In conditional clauses after *if* or *unless* (*if not*), a tense form apparently indicating a time further in the past than the time intended has the effect of implying that an idea is doubtful or contrary to fact. Thus, a past-tense form may express an untrue idea in present time.

I should not do that if I *were* you. (It is not true that I *am* you now.)

If I *believed* that, I should not be supporting him. (It is not true that I *believe* that now.)

Similarly, a past-perfect-tense form may express an untrue idea in past time.

If I *had believed* that, I should not have supported him. (It is not true that I *believed* that then.)

Note also that changing a modal auxiliary from a present-tense to a past-tense form has the effect of implying doubt about the assertion in question. Thus, compare the following sentences:

I *can* call for you in my car, if you *will* let me. (I assume that you will let me.)

I *could* call for you in my car, if you *would* let me. (I do not, out of politeness, assume that you will let me.)

You *may* come at eight o'clock, if that time *will* be convenient. (I assume that it will be.)

You *might* come at eight o'clock, if that time *would* be convenient. (I do not, out of politeness, assume that it will be.)

**213. Meanings of Modal Auxiliaries.** For the meanings of *shall* (*should*) and *will* (*would*) when in modal use, see 203 and 204. For the effect of putting a modal auxiliary in a past-tense form, see 212. Certain special meanings that may be expressed by modal auxiliaries in independent clauses follow:

*Should* expresses (1) obligation or (2) confident expectation in present or future time.

**Obligation:** You *should* have your brakes tested.

**Expectation:** You *should* hear any minute now.

*Would* expresses habitual action.

After dinner we *would* always have a game of cards.

*May* expresses (1) permission, (2) reasonable probability, or (3) a wish in present or future time.

**Permission:** Father is willing; I *may* go fishing with you.

**Probability:** I *may* finish my work in time to join you; I hope so.

**Wish:** *May* your luck never fail!

*Might* expresses doubtful probability.

I *might* finish my work in time to join you, but I doubt it.

*Can* expresses ability in present or future time. It should never be used for *may* to express permission (346).

How many times *can* you chin yourself?

*Could* may express ability in past time.

When I was fourteen, I *could* chin myself sixteen times.

*Must* expresses (1) necessity, (2) earnest recommendation, or (3) confident expectation in present or future time.

**Necessity:** You *must* finish your work before you leave the room.

**Recommendation:** You *must* not fail to visit Paris.

**Expectation:** The tide *must* be nearly out by this time.

*Ought* expresses (1) obligation or (2) confident expectation in present or future time. For the correct tense forms of *ought*, see 190.

**Obligation:** { You *ought* to write that letter today.  
You *ought* to have written that letter yesterday.

**Expectation:** The post office *ought* to be open now.

### Voice: Forms and Uses

**214. Active Voice: Use.** A verb is in the *Active Voice* when its subject is represented as acting or being. Complete verbs (36) and linking verbs (44) have but one voice, the active.

**Complete:** Harry *slept* until long after breakfast.

**Linking:** Harry *was* always a heavy sleeper.

The subject of an active transitive verb is called the doer of the action, and the direct object is called the receiver of the action.

My father next *bought* me an *armadillo*.

For the inappropriate use of the active voice, see Rhetorical Problem 13.

**215. Passive Voice: Use.** A verb is in the *Passive Voice* when its subject is the receiver of the action (214). In the following sentences the same verb, *capture*, is used first in the active, and then in the passive, voice:

**Active:** The sheriff *captured* the thief in a barn.

**Passive:** The thief *was captured* in a barn by the sheriff.

The subject of the active verb is *sheriff*, the doer of the action. The subject of the passive verb is *thief*, the receiver of the action. When the verb is passive, the doer of the action may be indicated, as in the sentence above, by a preposition (*by*). It may, on the other hand, be left unexpressed, either because it does not need to be indicated or because it is wholly indefinite.

The president *is elected* every four years.

Dueling *is no longer considered* reputable.

It will be noted that since only transitive verbs have objects, or receivers of action, only transitive verbs can be used in the passive voice.

For the inappropriate use of the passive voice, see Rhetorical Problem 13.

**216. Active Voice: Forms.** The principal parts of a verb are always given in the active voice, and all the forms for tense and mood that have been discussed above (192-207) are active forms. Typical forms are *I buy, I shall buy, I have bought, Buy*, etc.

**217. Passive Voice: Forms.** A passive verb is always compound, consisting of some form of the auxiliary *be* and a past participle. Typical passive forms, inflected for tense and mood, are *It is bought, It was bought, It had been bought, If it be bought*.

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 176-217

## QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. Why are past-tense forms in *t* classed together with those in *ed* and *d* as belonging to regular verbs?

2. The verb form in *The pipes burst* is correct, whereas that in *The pipes bursted* is incorrect. How is the incorrect form to be accounted for?

3. In view of the fact that *lay* means "cause to lie," and *set* means "cause to sit," account for the use of the verb in *She lays the table* and in *She sets the table*.

4. In the following sentence, is the form *don't* used as an independent verb or as an auxiliary? *If you can type your papers, why don't you?*

5. In view of the fact that in Old English *thou* and *thee* were singular and *ye* and *you* were plural, account for the fact that *you were*, not *you was*, is correct today.

6. Of what rule is *He don't know* a violation? Explain.

7. Comparing the verbs *drink*, *drank*, *drunk* and *ring*, *rang*, *rung* on the one hand and *cling*, *clung*, *clung* and *fling*, *flung*, *flung* on the other, is anything to be inferred as to the history of the latter verbs? Does the incorrect verb in *He rung the bell* throw light on the question? Again, does the fact that the dictionary records both *she span* and *she spun* indicate anything as to the probable history of the word?

8. What does *I lived in Chicago four years* on the one hand and *I have lived in Chicago four years* on the other imply as to the question of whether the speaker is still living in Chicago?

9. What is the difference in meaning between *When I met him he killed his first bear* and *When I met him he had killed his first bear*?

10. In how many ways can the expectation of going fishing on your next birthday be expressed?

11. What differences of meaning are expressed by the modal auxiliaries in the following sentences? *You shall pay the full price*



## The Verb: Forms and Uses Ex. 176-217

for it. *You shall have it at half-price. I will let you have it for a third off.*

12. How does *I shall buy it tomorrow* differ in meaning from *I will buy it tomorrow*?

13. In the following sentences, what is the difference in the implications of *shall*? *I shall make the fire at once. He shall make the fire at once.*

14. What does the sentence *I will be nineteen on my next birthday* imply?

15. Why is *I should like to meet him* better than *I would like to meet him*?

16. How does *When you come I shall go* differ in meaning from *When you come I shall have gone*?

17. Explain mood by the use of the following illustrative sentences: *They go fishing tomorrow. Go with them. Good luck go with you.*

18. By finishing the incomplete sentences *If he was angry* and *If he were angry*, illustrate the different implications of *was* and *were* as here used.

19. How is the sentence *I should go by the Panama Canal if I was you* to be criticized on the score of logic?

20. Comment on the tense form and the implied meaning of *liked* in the following sentence: *If I liked him, I should invite him.*

21. Change the sentence *He will give me a letter of recommendation if I ask him for one* so as to imply that the request will not be made.

22. Show what changes of meaning may be expressed by filling the blank in the following sentence successively by *should*, *would*, *could*, and *might*: *He ----- change his oil every thousand miles.*

23. Name the doer of the action, expressed or implied, and the receiver of the action of each active or passive verb in the following sentences: *The boat had been repainted before we bought it. When we tried the door, we discovered that it had been locked.*

## EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Principal Parts.** In the following sentences, each verb used represents one of the principal parts of that verb. Which is it, and what are the other principal parts?

[EXAMPLE. *Have you eaten all the fish that you caught?*  
*Eaten* is the past participle; *eat, ate, eaten*. *Caught* is the past tense; *catch, caught, caught*.]

1. I forget the name of the song you just sang.
2. We saw in the paper that you have already taken your degree.
3. After we have swum enough, we always run on the beach.
4. I have not written to my family since the day I left home.

**The Forms Lay and Set.** In each of the following sentences, is the verb *lay* or *set* a complete or a transitive verb? How can the fact be shown?

[EXAMPLE. *There lay the man as if dead.* *Lay* is complete: it has a subject, *man*, but needs no word to complete it.]

1. Set your bundle there in the corner.
2. If I lay it there, somebody may take it.
3. I shall watch it while I set the table.
4. So it lay there and was not touched.

**Person and Number.** What are the person and number of each verb in the following sentences, and with what substantive does it share the same person and number?

[EXAMPLE. *Where were you when he did it?* *Were*, like *you*, its subject, is second person singular (or plural). *Did*, like *he*, its subject, is third person singular.]

1. He does not yet know that we have it.
2. Why didn't they tell him where he was?
3. Frank has a cold, but it doesn't bother him.
4. We didn't realize that he was so sensitive.

## The Verb: Forms and Uses Ex. 176-217

**Present Tense.** In each of the following sentences, what is expressed by the use of the present tense of the verb?

[EXAMPLE. *He is sharpening his razor.* Continuous action in present time.]

1. Father always rises promptly at half past six.
2. He gives only two public concerts in Houston.
3. The salmon hatched in a certain river return to the same river to spawn.
4. I wear size-eight shoes and a sixteen-inch collar.

**Past Tense: Forms and Uses.** In each of the following sentences, what is the tense of the verb? Change it to the past tense, and show what change of meaning is thus expressed.

[EXAMPLE. *We have sung all the old football songs.* Present perfect. *We sang all the old football songs.* *Have sung* implies that we have just finished singing; *sang* implies that the singing was in the indefinite past.]

1. We had come to the end of our supplies.
2. I have run my last race in college.
3. In what plays have you seen him?
4. I remember yet the coffee that I have drunk there.

**Present Perfect Tense: Forms and Uses.** In each of the following sentences, what is the tense of the verb? Change it to the present perfect tense, and show what change of meaning is thus expressed.

[EXAMPLE. *I went to the races with him.* Past. *I have gone to the races with him.* *Went* implies one visit in the indefinite past; *have gone* implies at least one visit, and perhaps more than one, before the present.]

1. He had beaten me badly at tennis.
2. We drive there in less than three hours.
3. Did you see Arliss in *Disraeli*?
4. I took enough medicine to kill me.

**Past Perfect Tense: Forms and Uses.** In each of the following sentences, what is the tense of the verb? Change it to the past perfect tense, and show what change of meaning is thus expressed.

[EXAMPLE. *I have always wanted to go to Harvard.*  
Present perfect. *I had always wanted to go to Harvard.*  
*Have wanted* implies that I still want to go; *had wanted* implies that I wanted to go, up to some point in past time.]

1. We have never yet heard *Siegfried*.
2. I have been at Stanford two years.
3. Where did you leave your racket?
4. Have you finished painting your roof?

**Future Tense: Forms and Uses.** In each of the following sentences, what is the implication of the modal auxiliary? Change the auxiliary so that it shall express futurity.

[EXAMPLE. *You shall wear whatever you like.* Willing-  
ness. *You will wear whatever you like.*]

1. I will go by boat.
2. He shall take his vacation whenever he wishes it.
3. I will go independently if I go at all.
4. You shall follow your own best judgment.

**The Three Moods.** In what mood is each of the verbs in the following sentences?

[EXAMPLE. *If he call while I am out, ask him to wait.*  
*Call* is subjunctive; *am* is indicative; *ask* is imperative.]

1. If it be not too late when you arrive, call me up.
2. Tell me where you think they have gone.
3. If the storm strike us before we get steam up, heaven help us!
4. Do write me what you plan to do after you leave home.

**Past-Tense Forms with Subjunctive Uses.** In each of the following sentences expressing ideas contrary to fact,

what is the tense form used? How should the sentence be worded to express actuality?

[EXAMPLE. *He would not sit on damp ground if he knew better. Would and knew are past-tense forms. He does not sit on damp ground, for he knows better.*]

1. If I had known his address I should have telegraphed.
2. He could tell you all about it if you cared to ask him.
3. You might have joined us if you had brought riding breeches.
4. I could easily avoid him if I wanted to.

**Meanings of Modal Auxiliaries.** What is expressed by each of the modal auxiliaries in the following sentences?

[EXAMPLE. *When he first arrived, he could not swim a stroke.* Ability in past time.]

1. The mail must be ready to distribute by this time.
2. Don't be too sure; it may rain.
3. This is a book that you should certainly read.
4. The anchor is light, but it might hold.

**Active and Passive Voices.** Is the verb in each of the following sentences active or passive? If the verb is passive, rephrase the sentence so that the verb shall be active.

[EXAMPLE. *The car was not badly injured.* Passive.]  
[*Something had injured the car, but not badly.*]

1. It was now being repaired.
2. The owner was painting the body.
3. His son was grinding the valves.
4. The right head-lamp had been smashed beyond repair.

#### TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow.

[EXAMPLE. The emphatic conjugation of a verb: *I do wish you would stop.*]

1. The principal parts of a regular verb
2. The principal parts of an irregular verb

3. *Lay* as a complete verb
4. *Set* as a transitive verb
5. The progressive conjugation of a verb
6. The emphatic conjugation of a verb
7. A modal auxiliary in the past-tense form
8. A verb agreeing with a subject in the third person singular
9. A verb agreeing with a subject in the second person plural
10. A verb in the present tense expressing timeless truth
11. A present-tense form expressing future action
12. A past-tense form that differs from the past participle
13. A past participle that differs from a past-tense form
14. A verb in the past tense
15. A verb in the present perfect tense
16. A verb in the past perfect tense
17. A verb, first person singular, in the future tense
18. A verb, second person plural, in the future tense
19. A modal auxiliary expressing determination
20. A modal auxiliary expressing willingness
21. *Should* in a conditional clause expressed doubtfully
22. A modal auxiliary preceding *like to*
23. A verb in the future perfect tense
24. A verb in the indicative mood
25. A verb in the imperative mood
26. A verb in the subjunctive mood
27. A past-tense form in subjunctive use
28. A modal auxiliary expressing obligation
29. A verb in the active voice
30. A verb in the passive voice

## THE VERBAL: FORMS AND USES

### The Verbal and Its Use in Verb-Phrases, etc.

**218. Kinds of Verbals.** There are three kinds of verbals: (1) the participle, (2) the gerund, and (3) the infinitive. Because the verbals are not used for asserting, they are sometimes known as *Nonmodal Forms*.

**219. Forms of the Three Verbals.** The following table shows the active and passive verbal forms of a typical transitive verb:

PARTICIPLE		
	Active	Passive
Present	seeing	being seen
Past	having seen	seen
Phrasal past		having been seen
GERUND		
Present	seeing	being seen
Past	having seen	having been seen
INFINITIVE		
Present	(to) see	(to) be seen
Past	(to) have seen	(to) have been seen

**220. Verbals in Verb-Phrases.** Three of the verbals are used in the formation of verb-phrases. They are not, however, used exclusively for this purpose.

1. The present infinitive without *to* is used in the formation of future-tense forms (I shall *go*, he will *go*) and in verb-phrases with modal and other auxiliaries (he should *go*, I did *go*). Note, however, that *to* is used after the auxiliary *ought*.

2. The present participle is used in the formation of the progressive conjugation (I was *reading*).

3. The past participle, the third of the three principal parts, is used in the formation of different past-tense forms of the active voice (I have *gone*, she had *gone*) and in all forms of the passive voice (I am *seen*, he had been *seen*, to be *seen*).

**221. The Infinitive in Infinitive Clauses.** For the use of the infinitive in infinitive clauses, see 50-51.

### The Verbal in Adjective or Substantive Use

**222. Verbals Combining Two Functions.** In its broadest sense the term *verbal* includes the participles and infinitives used in verb-phrases (220) and the infinitives used in infinitive clauses (50). In a narrower sense the same term is applied to the words that combine two functions — verb and noun, verb and adjective, verb and adverb. The verbal in this narrower sense remains to be discussed.

**223. Verbals as Adjectives or Nouns.** According to the uses they may perform in a sentence, verbals may be classified as (1) verbal nouns or (2) verbal adjectives. Besides, the infinitive may be used as an adverb.

The *Participle* is a verbal adjective, as may be seen by comparing the following sentences:

**Adjective:** Walter, *weary*, soon fell asleep.

**Participle:** Walter, *reading*, soon fell asleep.

The participle *reading* modifies the noun *Walter*, just as the adjective *weary* does. It differs from the pure adjective in that it implies action.

The *Gerund* is a verbal noun, as may be seen by comparing the following sentences:

**Noun:** *Books* soon tire me.

**Gerund:** *Reading* soon tires me.

The gerund *reading* is a noun, the subject of the verb *tires*, just as *books* is a noun, the subject of the verb *tire*. It differs from the pure noun in that it implies action.



The *Infinitive* is usually a verbal noun, though it may be used as an adjective or an adverb. It differs from the pure noun, adjective, or adverb in that it implies action.

For the infinitive as a verbal noun, compare the following sentences:

**Noun:** My sole desire was *knowledge*.

**Infinitive:** My sole desire was *to read*.

The infinitive *to read* is here a noun, the predicate nominative after the verb *was*, just as the noun *knowledge* is.

For the infinitive in adjective use, compare the following sentences:

**Adjective:** I had many *readable* books.

**Infinitive:** I had many books *to read*.

The infinitive *to read* here modifies the noun *books*, just as the adjective *readable* does. Note that the infinitive in adjective use serves the same purpose that an adjective phrase might serve. Thus, *books to read* is equivalent to *books for reading*.

For the infinitive in adverbial use, compare the following sentences:

**Adverb phrase:** This book is pleasant *for entertainment*.

**Infinitive:** This book is pleasant *to read*.

The infinitive *to read* here modifies the adjective *pleasant*, just as the adverbial phrase *for entertainment* does. Note that *pleasant to read* is equivalent to *pleasant for reading*.

**224. Construction of Verbal Nouns or Adjectives.** A verbal noun, whether a gerund or an infinitive, may be used in the various constructions in which a noun may be used. A few typical examples follow:

**Subject:** *Flying* fascinated him.

**Subject:** *To graduate* was his one ambition.

**Predicate nominative:** My chief ambition is *to travel*.

**Object:** I always wanted *to travel*.

**Object of preposition:** He earned his way *by typing*.

A participle may be used as a modifier in various positions :

**Before its noun:** A *flying* bird is hard to shoot.

**After its noun:** A wild goose, *flying*, is hard to shoot.

**Predicate adjective:** Our boat seemed to be *flying*.

**225. Faded Verbals.** It sometimes happens that all the original verb force fades out of a participle or a gerund, so that adjective force or noun force alone remains. The faded participle is then to be considered an adjective, and the faded gerund is to be considered a noun. Thus, contrast the uses of the word *singing* in the following sentences :

**Participle:** The piano had a *singing* tone.

**Adjective:** Mr. Cross was a *singing* teacher.

Contrast also the uses of the same word in the following sentences :

**Gerund:** In *singing* that song, he flattered.

**Noun:** He was a teacher of *singing*.

### The Verbal in a Verbal Phrase

**226. The Verbal Phrase.** It has been seen that frameworks, with modifiers, may be built upon verbs (31-46). In a somewhat similar way, word groups may be built upon verbals. A word group thus formed is called a *Verbal Phrase* (not to be confused with a verb-phrase). Verbal phrases are of four kinds: (1) the participial phrase, (2) the gerund phrase, (3) the infinitive phrase, and (4) the absolute participial phrase.

**227. Double Force of the Verbal.** In a verbal phrase the verbal combines the functions of two parts of speech; it has, in other words, a double force. In a participial phrase the verbal has, at one and the same time, the force of an adjective and the force of a verb. In a gerund phrase or in an infinitive phrase, the verbal has, at one and the same

time, the force of a noun and the force of a verb. How this may be will become clear in the sections that follow.

**228. Participial Phrase.** In the sentence *Walter, reading, soon fell asleep*, it has been shown (223) that the participle *reading* has adjective force because it modifies the noun *Walter*. If the sentence is now expanded so as to read *Walter, reading his book comfortably by the fire, soon fell asleep*, it may be seen that the participle has verb force as well, because (1) *book* is used as the object of *reading*, and (2) *comfortably by the fire* consists of an adverb and an adverbial phrase, both of which modify *reading*. These relationships, indeed, are precisely what they are in the sentence *Walter read his book comfortably by the fire. Reading his book comfortably by the fire* is a participial phrase.

**229. Gerund Phrase.** In the sentence *Walter, after reading, went to bed*, the gerund *reading* can be seen to have noun force because it is the object of the preposition *after*. If the sentence is now expanded so as to read *Walter, after reading his book for an hour, went to bed*, it may be seen that the gerund has verb force as well, because (1) *book* is its object and (2) *for an hour* modifies it. *After reading his book for an hour* is a gerund phrase.

**230. Infinitive Phrase.** In the sentence *Walter loved to read*, the infinitive *to read* can be seen to have noun force because it is the object of the verb *loved*. If the sentence is now expanded so as to read *Walter loved to read his book by the fire*, it may be seen that the infinitive has verb force as well, because (1) *book* is its object and (2) *by the fire* modifies it. *To read his book by the fire* is an infinitive phrase.

**231. The Agent of a Verbal.** A verb, asserting action or being, requires a subject to show who acts or who is (33). A verbal, implying action or being, does not have an actual subject, but it does normally require a word to show who is the doer of the implied action. That word may be

called the *Agent* of the verbal. (For general phrases that do not require agents, see 235.) There are two kinds of verbal phrases in which the agent of the verbal stands within the phrase itself: (1) an absolute participial phrase, and (2) a phrase in which a possessive form stands before a gerund.

**232. Absolute Participial Phrase.** A phrase containing a substantive and a participle that stand in the relation of subject and verb is an *Absolute Participial Phrase*. The substantive is called the *Nominative Absolute*. Such a phrase is called "absolute" because it is not connected grammatically with the rest of the sentence. The relation of substantive and participle is brought out by a comparison of the following sentences:

**Clause:** Because *Dan was* too old for the part, we chose Sanford.

**Phrase:** *Dan being* too old for the part, we chose Sanford.

**233. Possessive as Agent of a Gerund.** A possessive (62) standing immediately before a gerund supplies the agent for that gerund. A comparison of the following sentences makes clear the relationship:

**Verb:** *Hal refused* the prize.

**Gerund:** { I do not understand *Hal's refusing* the prize.  
I do not understand *his refusing* the prize.

The significance of this construction becomes clearer after a comparison of the following sentences:

I saw *Hal refusing* the prize.

I applaud *Hal's refusing* the prize.

In the first sentence, *Hal* is the object of *saw*, and the form in *ing* is a participle agreeing with *Hal*. In the second sentence, the object of *applaud* is *refusing*, a gerund, and the possessive, *Hal's*, both modifies it and supplies its agent. The use of an objective case where a possessive is

called for, then, changes both the construction and the meaning. Compare, for example, the following sentences:

**Clear:** *Hal's refusing* the prize astonishes me.

**Misleading:** *Hal refusing* the prize astonishes me.

It should be noted, however, that an agent incapable of being smoothly expressed in the possessive case may be treated as an exception.

**Normal:** I can't conceive of *his* being so polite.

**Exceptional:** I can't conceive of *a man with a disposition like that* being so polite.

For the case of the agent of a gerund, see Grammatical Problem 3.

**234. Agent outside of the Phrase.** When a verbal phrase is attached to a clause, the agent of the verbal (231) stands, not within the phrase itself, but in the clause.

The verbal phrase may introduce the clause to which it is attached. The agent of the verbal is then supplied by the subject of the clause immediately following. The following sentences illustrate the point:

**Participial phrase:** *Pausing* before the door, *he* fumbled for his latchkey.

**Compare:** *He paused* before the door.

**Gerund phrase:** Before *doing* this trick, *I* shall roll up my shirt-sleeves.

**Compare:** *Before I do this trick . . .*

**Infinitive phrase:** *To enjoy* such a trip, *you* should take old clothes.

**Compare:** *If you are to enjoy such a trip . . .*

The verbal phrase may follow the clause to which it is attached. The agent of the verbal is then supplied by a conspicuous word in the clause immediately preceding. Such a word may be the subject of the verb or the last important substantive of the clause. Note that in the fol-

lowing correct sentences there is no difficulty in supplying the agent of the verbal:

*Mrs. Standish hurried down the path, buttoning her gloves as she walked.*

*The workers brought out a heavy vote, resulting in an overwhelming victory for the mayor.*

A verbal for which an agent is either lacking altogether or awkwardly misplaced is called a "dangling" verbal (see Grammatical Problem 20).

**235. General Verbal Phrases without Agents.** Though the meaning of a sentence usually requires that the agent of a verbal shall be expressed, a verbal phrase purely general in meaning requires no agent. A few typical examples follow:

*Playing football in hot weather is doubly exhausting.*

*It is impossible to cross the mountains after the first snow.*

*Speaking quite frankly, he is a bore.*

*To tell the truth, nobody really cared for him.*

**236. Tense of the Verbal.** For the principle governing the choice of tense in verbal phrases, see Grammatical Problem 13.

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 218-236

### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. The present participle and the gerund have a distinguishing mark in common. What is it?

2. *To* is the so-called sign of the infinitive. Are all infinitives distinguished by that sign? Illustrate.

3. In each of the sentences *The judge, frowning, rapped for order* and *Frowning expressed his deep displeasure*, what kind of verbal is *frowning*?

4. In the sentences *The judge, frowning, rapped for order* and *The judge, surprised, rapped for order*, what have the words *frowning* and *surprised* in common, and how do they differ?

## The Verbal: Forms and Uses Ex. 218-236

5. In the sentences *I dislike to cook* and *I dislike cooking*, what have the words *to cook* and *cooking* in common, and how do they differ?

6. In the sentences *I have apples to sell* and *They are too expensive to buy*, what functions of the infinitive are illustrated?

7. In the sentences that follow, which of the words ending in *ing* have verbal force, and which have not? How are the other words to be accounted for? *She dislikes ironing. Her ironing is shocking. He couldn't keep his seat on a trotting horse. He couldn't keep away from trotting races.*

8. In the sentence *Father being away from home, I could not accept*, the word *Father* is related to the word *being*; and in the sentence *Father's being away from home made it impossible for me to accept*, the word *Father's* is related to the word *being*. What have these relationships in common, and how do they differ?

9. Why is *them* used in one of the following sentences, and *their* in the other? *I heard them quarreling violently. Their quarreling in public embarrassed me.*

10. How may it be shown that the participle in the following sentence has both adjective and verb force? *My brother, busily slapping flies, did not hear me.*

11. In the following sentences, what have the words *pushing* in common, and how do they differ? *Pushing the brake too hard, I made the car skid. By pushing the brake too hard, I made the car skid.*

12. In the following sentence, what is the agent of the verbal? *Turning quickly, he grasped my hand.* Rephrase the sentence, changing the verbal to a verb.

13. In the following sentences, is the relation of each infinitive clause to the main clause the same? Why? *To catch these salmon, you need a certain kind of spoon. To make a long story short, they didn't catch a single salmon.*

14. In the following sentences, how do the various tenses indicate different points of time? *I hoped to see you last Thursday. Yes, I expected to have called at least once before you left. Well, we shall hope to see you as soon as we return.*

## EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Verbals in Verb-Phrases.** In each of the following sentences, what kind of verbal is used, and in what tense and voice, to form a verb-phrase?

[EXAMPLE. *You should have seen that play. Have seen*]  
is an infinitive, past tense, active voice.

1. Have you visited his country estate?
2. Two matinées will be given this week.
3. The fire started while I was being photographed.
4. No, rattlesnakes have never been seen here.

**Verbals in Adjective and Noun Use.** Which of the verbals in the following sentences are used as adjectives, and which as nouns? What is the construction of each?

[EXAMPLE. *With my tender skin, shaving is always a torture. Shaving* is a gerund (verbal noun), the subject of *is*.

1. His consuming ambition was to fly.
2. In the spring it is a deep, rushing stream.
3. If he deserves to be ducked, isn't this the time for ducking him?
4. Startled, he sprang to his feet, listening.

**Absolute Participial Phrases.** In each of the following sentences, which is the participle in an absolute phrase, and what is its agent?

[EXAMPLE. *Parker being still lame, we had to put in Meldrum as right guard. Being* is a participle in an absolute phrase, and *Parker* is its agent.

1. It seemed wisest, all things being considered, to remain where we were.
2. There being nobody to help me, it will be four o'clock before I have the thing done.



## The Verbal: Forms and Uses Ex. 218-236

3. That morning I had to crank the engine, the battery being too weak to function.

4. Our stock being still in escrow, we could not sell a single share of it.

**Participles in Verbal Phrases.** In each of the following sentences, what does the participle modify (its agent), and in what way is its verb force shown?

[EXAMPLE. *Having lit his pipe deliberately, he sat awaiting my explanation.* *Having lit* modifies *he*, its agent; *pipe* is its object, and *deliberately* modifies it. *Awaiting* modifies *he*, its agent; *explanation* is its object.]

1. He looked at me suspiciously, evidently thinking that I was out of my mind.

2. Screened completely by the bushes, I saw everything that the men did.

3. The captain, roused suddenly from sleep, rushed on deck, shouting orders as he ran.

4. Hastily throwing down a nickel and grabbing a paper, I jumped for the train.

**Gerunds in Verbal Phrases.** In each of the following sentences, how is the noun force of the gerund shown, what is its agent, and in what ways is its verb force shown?

[EXAMPLE. *In rounding the corner too suddenly, I almost turned the car over.* The gerund, *rounding*, is the object of the preposition *in*; its agent is *I*; *corner* is its object, and *suddenly* modifies it.]

1. We just finished painting the boat before being called home for luncheon.

2. By dyeing her dress a dark green, she made it last another season.

3. After playing two hard sets of tennis, we were quite ready for a swim.

4. He had made the mistake of being seen in my company.

**Infinitives in Verbal Phrases.** In each of the following sentences, how is the verb force of the infinitive shown? If the infinitive has an agent, what is it?

[EXAMPLE. *To preserve the boat from barnacles, you should use copper paint below the water-line.* The infinitive *to preserve* is shown to have verb force by having *boat* as its object and *from barnacles* as a modifying phrase. *You* is its agent.]

1. His highest ambition was not to be dismissed from college.
2. To reach his patient in time, he had to break the speed limit.
3. The one thing she did not want was to have a formal church wedding.
4. To do the job right, I shall need a dozen skilled men.

#### TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow :

[EXAMPLE. *Participial phrase:* The knife slipped, *cutting my finger.*]

1. A verbal in a verb-phrase, active voice
2. A verbal in a verb-phrase, passive voice
3. A participle modifying a noun
4. A gerund as subject of a verb
5. An infinitive as object of a verb
6. An absolute participial phrase
7. A participial phrase
8. A gerund phrase
9. An infinitive phrase
10. A general verbal phrase without an expressed agent

## THE ADJECTIVE: FORMS AND USES

### Forms of Adjectives

**237. Kinds of Adjectives.** For the different kinds of adjectives, descriptive and limiting (including articles), see 19.

**238. Adjectives vs. Nouns.** It is use, not form, that determines whether a given word is a substantive or an adjective. This principle has already been illustrated in the case of the pronoun and the pronominal adjective (20).

That forms serving as descriptive adjectives or as numeral (limiting) adjectives may also be used as nouns is illustrated in the following sentences:

**Adjective:** Our car will be painted *green*.

**Noun:** Father prefers *green* for our car.

**Adjective:** *Two* boys made all the posters.

**Noun:** *Two* of the boys made all the posters.

Although differences of form may distinguish proper nouns from their corresponding adjectives (cf. *Belgium* and *Belgian*), the same form may serve both uses, as may be seen in the following sentences:

**Adjective:** He drove a *Lincoln* roadster.

**Noun:** I have just bought his *Lincoln*.

For the capitalization of adjectives formed from proper names, see 429 and 441.

### Comparison of Adjectives: Forms

**239. Comparison of Adjectives.** When an adjective describes a quality (as *high* describes the quality of height), relative degrees of that quality may be expressed by means

of inflection; thus, *high, higher, highest*. In this inflection of adjectives, called *Comparison*, three *Degrees* are distinguished: the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*. The positive degree merely indicates what the quality is; the comparative degree expresses a higher degree of that same quality; and the superlative degree expresses the highest degree of the quality. Thus,

**Positive degree:** weak

**Comparative degree:** weaker

**Superlative degree:** weakest

Adverbs, as well as adjectives, can be compared (261).

**240. Regular Comparison of Adjectives.** Most adjectives of one syllable and a few adjectives of two syllables are compared "regularly," that is, by the addition of the endings *er* and *est*. Under certain circumstances the spelling of a comparative or superlative form is changed in anticipation of the inflectional ending. A study of the following examples (cf. also 399, 401, 404) will show the principles governing such change:

fine, finer, finest; handsome, handsomer, handsomest

happy, happier, happiest; weary, wearier, weariest

big, bigger, biggest; sad, sadder, saddest; wet, wetter, wettest

**241. *More* and *Most* in the Comparison of Adjectives.** Many adjectives of two syllables and most adjectives of three or more syllables are compared by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*. Typical examples follow:

florid, more florid, most florid

formidable, more formidable, most formidable

Although many words can be compared only by means of the adverbs *more* and *most*, many words capable of regular comparison may be compared also by means of adverbs. It will be observed also that the use of the adverbs *less* and *least* permits of comparison down the scale instead of up.

**242. Irregular Comparison of Adjectives.** The following examples of irregular comparison should be specially noted:

bad (evil, ill)	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
	further	furthest
good	better	best
late	later (latter)	latest (last)
little	less (lesser)	least
much (many)	more	most
old	older (elder)	oldest (eldest)

For distinction in the use of *farther* and *further*, and *latest* and *last*, see 345. Note also that *latter* is used when *former* is either used or implied. The form *lesser* is idiomatic in such expressions as *the lesser of two evils*. The irregular forms *elder* and *eldest* are preferred to the regular forms *older* and *oldest* when used before certain nouns expressing personal relationship. Note the following examples:

She is my *elder* sister.

She is two years *older* than I am.

She is the *eldest* [child] of four children.

She lives in the *oldest* house in town.

**243. Adjectives That May Logically Be Compared.** If the quality expressed by an adjective is absolute, the adjective is naturally incapable of being compared. Thus, if a thing is described as *unique*, alone in its class, there is no possibility of anything's having more or less of that same quality. *Infinite*, *unanimous*, *double*, and *mortal* are examples of adjectives incapable of comparison.

The principle just stated should not, however, be applied with too pedantic strictness. When words like *precise*, *definite*, *exact* are used to express an absolute quality, they are, to be sure, incapable of comparison. The same words may, however, be used to express a quality approximating

absoluteness, and then it is entirely justifiable to say that one thing is more or less precise, definite, or exact than another.

### Comparison of Adjectives: Good Use

**244. Items Capable of Being Compared.** A sentence containing a comparison should be so phrased that it compares items actually capable of being compared. The following sentence is an example of inaccurate phrasing, for in it a logically impossible comparison is made between *skill* and *player*:

**Inaccurate:** His *skill* in passing was greater than any other *player* on the team.

A carelessly phrased sentence of this kind can be corrected by the insertion of a demonstrative pronoun referring to the first item of the comparison ; thus,

**Accurate:** His *skill* in passing was greater than *that* of any other player on the team.

For the application of this principle, see Grammatical Problem 21.

**245. Completeness in Comparison.** The use of *more* or its equivalent implies a *than* to complete the comparison. When left incomplete, a comparison is usually weak and often misleading. Compare, for example, the following sentences:

**Incomplete:** I prefer railway travel because it is *more comfortable*.

**Complete:** I prefer railway travel because it is *more comfortable than* travel by bus.

It is to be noticed, however, that *most* or its equivalent may be used in the sense of *very*. Under such circumstances no comparison is implied, and the issue of completeness need not be raised. Thus,

Our accommodations were *most comfortable*, and we were treated with the *greatest consideration*.

For completeness in comparison, see Grammatical Problem 21.

**246. Logical Use of the Comparative Degree.** When the comparative degree is used to compare a selected member of a group with another member of the same group, the sentence should be so worded that the selected member is not compared with itself. The word *all* cannot logically be used to complete the comparison if *all* includes the selected member.

**Illogical:** *Micky was more troublesome than all the boys in his class.*

Under the same circumstances *any* is not logically appropriate, for *any* (*any one*) might designate the selected member.

**Illogical:** *Micky was more troublesome than any boy in his class.*

In the following sentences the demands of logic are met by the words *any other* or *all the rest*.

**Logical:** *Micky was more troublesome than any other boy in his class.*

**Logical:** *Micky was more troublesome than all the rest of the boys put together.*

For the application of this principle, see Grammatical Problem 21.

**247. Logical Use of the Superlative Degree.** The superlative degree is not appropriate for comparing two persons or things: the comparative should be used for this purpose.

**Illogical:** *The other team has the strongest backfield.*

**Logical:** *The other team has the stronger backfield.*

When the superlative degree is used to distinguish a selected member from a group, the sentence should be so

worded that the selected member is distinguished from the entire group of which it is a part. The word *any* is not logically appropriate, for it implies one or another chosen out of the group.

**Illogical:** Micky was the *most troublesome* of *any* boy in his class.

In the following sentence the demands of logic are met by the word *all*:

**Logical:** Micky was the most troublesome of *all* the boys in his class.

For the application of this principle, see Grammatical Problem 21.

**248. Case in Elliptical Comparison.** When the conjunction *than*, completing a comparison, introduces an elliptical clause (104), the case of the substantive is determined by supplying the omitted words (see Grammatical Problem 4).

David is a far better mathematician than *I* [am].

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 237-248

### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. In the sentences *I took along my Colt automatic* and *The Colt, alas, had rusted*, which are the nouns and which are the adjectives?
2. In the sentence *We bought several cheap, red single blankets*, which adjectives can be compared? Why cannot all?
3. In the sentence *At the other hotel the society is jollier and altogether more delightful than ours is*, why is one method of comparison used with one adjective, and another with another?
4. In the sentence *The speed of his new boat is twice as great as his old one*, what two things are compared? How may the sentence be improved?
5. Why does the sentence *I wear oxfords because they are lighter* need to be corrected?



## The Adjective: Forms and Uses Ex. 237-248

6. Does the sentence *He is taller than any of his family* make sense or nonsense? Why?

7. In what sense may the following sentence be considered correct, and in what sense is it incorrect? *The sea air made us drowsy, but the mountain air was most stimulating.*

8. Criticize the logic of the following sentence: *He is the tallest of any of his family.*

### EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Kinds of Adjectives.** Which adjectives in the following sentences are descriptive, which are limiting, and which are articles?

[EXAMPLE. *The first melons that he bought were unripe. The* is an article; *first* is a limiting adjective; *unripe* is a descriptive adjective.]

1. There were several old polo ponies among the lot.
2. At the time I had only two close friends.
3. He had collected more modern air-mail stamps than old foreign ones.
4. Only four good students remained until the senior year.

**Comparison of Adjectives.** In the following sentences, which descriptive adjectives may be compared by inflections, which require adverbs, and which are compared irregularly? Which cannot be compared at all?

[EXAMPLE. *His best hunter, a superb bay, was now dead.* *Best* is compared irregularly; *superb* requires adverbs; *dead* cannot be compared.]

1. He considered it undesirable to have small, expensive articles in his show window.
2. His disposition, friendly but shy, frank but always courteous, was unique.
3. Absolute power tends to make a good ruler self-willed and arbitrary.
4. To the average sailor, the worst storm is preferable to long days of dense fog.

**Logic in Comparison.** What circumstances make the following examples of comparison logical?

[EXAMPLE. *He always worked longer than anybody else in the office.* The comparative degree is used to compare one with one other.]

1. It was by far the hardest storm that we had ever experienced.
2. He did his writing in the early morning hours, when the house was quieter than it was at any other time.
3. The other horse was stronger but much more nervous.
4. Except for Halsey, I was the best sprinter on the team.

#### TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow.

[EXAMPLE. *An adjective incapable of being compared:*  
He was as inexperienced as a babe unborn.]

1. A descriptive adjective
2. A limiting adjective
3. An adjective formed from a proper noun
4. An adjective compared regularly
5. An adjective compared by means of adverbs
6. An adjective compared irregularly
7. An adjective incapable of being compared
8. An adjective used logically in the comparative degree
9. An adjective used logically in the superlative degree

## THE ADVERB: FORMS AND USES

### Kinds of Adverbs

**249. General Function of Adverbs.** For the general function of adverbs as modifiers of verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, see 22.

**250. Adverbs of Time, Place, etc.** Most adverbs can be classified as adverbs of (1) *Time*, (2) *Place*, (3) *Manner*, or (4) *Degree*.

Representative adverbs of time are *when*, *then*, *now*, *recently*, *today*, *already*.

*When* will he come? I think he is *already* here.

Representative adverbs of place are *where*, *there*, *here*, *back*, *away*.

*Where* was he? He was *here* all the time.

Representative adverbs of manner are *how*, *thus*, *quietly*, *noiselessly*, *quickly*. Note that a great number of adverbs ending in *ly* are adverbs of manner.

He came in *quietly* and tiptoed *noiselessly* to a seat.

Representative adverbs of degree are *how* (as in *how much*, *how many*, etc.), *much*, *little*, *less*, *very*.

*How* weary did he seem? He seemed *too much* excited to be *very* weary.

**251. *When*, *Where*, etc., as Interrogative Adverbs.** The adverbs *when*, *where*, *why*, etc., when used in asking direct and indirect questions (75-76), are classed as *Interrogative Adverbs*.

**Direct question:** *Where* did he go?

**Indirect question:** She wondered *where* he went.

**252. *When, Where, etc.*, as Relative Adverbs.** Compare the following sentences:

This is the *time at which* we were to come.

This is the *time when* we were to come.

It is clear that *at which* and *when* fulfil the same function: each introduces an adjective clause (78) modifying the noun *time*. *Which* is a relative pronoun; and *when*, because it fulfils the same function, is here a *Relative Adverb*. For the same reason, *where* and *why* are relative adverbs in the following sentences:

This is the *place where* [*at which*] we were to meet.

I see no *reason why* [*for which*] he doesn't come.

The adjective clause introduced by *where* modifies the noun *place*, and the adjective clause introduced by *why* modifies the noun *reason*.

**253. Adverbial Origin of Certain Conjunctions.** *When, where*, and such other words as *before, after, since* may introduce subordinate clauses, just as subordinating conjunctions do. Compare, for example, the following sentences:

Sit down and rest *if* you are tired.

Sit down and rest *when* you are tired.

*Since* you came here, you have never rested.

If the word *if* is a conjunction, how should the word *when*, of adverbial origin, be classed? Nothing is gained by making unnecessary distinctions between words fulfilling the same function. Words like *when, where, before, after, since*, therefore, regardless of their adverbial origin, are best classified as subordinating conjunctions (26, 79) when their function is to introduce subordinate adverbial clauses.

**254. Negative Adverbs.** Pure negative adverbs are *not* and such adverbs as *never* (*not ever*), *nowhere*.

The words *hardly*, *scarcely*, *only*, and *but* (= *only*) have negative force, as may be seen in the following sentences:

I *hardly ever* [*almost never*] see him.

He could *scarcely* [*almost could not*] stagger.

We had *only* [*not more than*] ten cents between us.

They could *but* [*do nothing except*] hope.

**255. Yes and No as Adverbs.** *Yes* and *no*, though now equivalent to complete assertions, were once adverbs, and are still classed as such.

**256. Nouns Used Adverbially.** For the noun in the objective case, used as an adverb, see 125.

**257. Forms Not Accepted as English Words.** For the forms *illy*, *overly*, *thusly*, sometimes used as adverbs but not accepted by reputable writers, see 338.

### Adverbs Distinguished from Adjectives

**258. Adverbial Forms Distinguished by *ly*.** Many adverbs are formed by adding *ly* to adjective forms; e.g., *gratefully* from *grateful*.

Note that the following forms are adverbs, and that the corresponding adjective forms without *ly* should not be used instead of them:

considerably      finely      really      surely

For correct adverbial forms, see Grammatical Problem 22.

**259. Forms in *ly* That Are Not Adverbs.** Certain forms in *ly* are not adverbs, but are adjectives; e.g., *cowardly*, *princely*. *Friendly* and *leisurely* are in better use as adjectives than as adverbs.

The following sentences illustrate the best modern use of these words:

He behaved [*not cowardly*, but] in a *cowardly* way throughout.

Our hostess treated us [*not lovely*, but] with *lovely* hospitality.

Note that the forms *early* and *kindly* are both adjectives and adverbs.

We rose *early* [adv.], so as to get an *early* [adj.] start.

A *kindly* [adj.] man acts *kindly* [adv.] to animals.

For the correct use of *likely*, as adjective and adverb, see 263.

For the correct use of *cowardly*, *lovely*, etc., see Grammatical Problem 22.

**260. Adverbs and Adjectives Alike in Form.** Some adverbs have the same forms that adjectives have. Typical examples follow :

clean	far	late	low	short
close	fast	long	pretty	well
deep	hard	loud	right	wrong

In a *deep* [adj.] pool one can dive *deep* [adv.].

For the correct use of adjectives and adverbs alike in form, see Grammatical Problem 22.

### Comparison of Adverbs

**261. Comparison of Adverbs: Forms.** Most adverbs are compared by prefixing *more* and *most*.

smoothly, more smoothly, most smoothly

Some adverbs are compared by means of the inflectional endings *er* and *est*.

fast, faster, fastest                      long, longer, longest

Some adverbs have irregular comparison. Note especially the following :

badly (ill), worse, worst                      well, better, best

**262. Comparison of Adverbs: Use.** The same principles that govern the use of comparison in the adjective apply also to the adverb.

Comparison should be complete (245).

**Incomplete:** I prefer the airplane because it goes *faster*.

**Complete:** I prefer the airplane because it goes *faster than* the railway train.

The use of the superlative degree should be logical (247).

**Illogical:** The other team played *best*.

**Logical:** The other team played *better*.

### Idiomatic Use of Adverbs

**263. Adverbs Used under Special Conditions.** Note that *most* may be used as an adverb in the sense of "excessively," but not in that of "almost."

It was *most* fortunate that we chanced to meet him.

At the time we were [not *most*, but] *almost* dead.

Note that *some*, an adverb as well as an adjective, may be used in the sense of "approximately," but not in the sense of "very."

The fleet consisted of *some* sixty vessels.

They looked [not *some*, but] *very* formidable.

Note that *likely*, an adjective, is not in good use as an adverb unless preceded by *most* or *very*.

It did not seem *likely* [adj.] that we should win.

We shall [not *likely*, but] *probably* lose.

We shall, *most likely*, lose.

Note that in English usage *very*, when used before a past participle, is ordinarily followed by *much*.

He was [not *very*, but] *very much* encouraged by the news.

Note that after a negative the adverb *so* is preferred to the adverb *as*:

He is *not so* old as you would think.

She is *never so* happy as when she is on a boat.

For the correct use of adverbs treated in this section, see Grammatical Problem 22.

**264. The Double Negative.** Under the term *negatives* are included obvious negatives, like *not*, *never*, *cannot*, and words of negative force: (1) the adverbs *hardly*, *scarcely*, *only*, *but* (= *only*) (254); (2) such verbs as *misunderstood* and *help* (= *keep from*); and (3) such adjectives as *unable*, *unkind*, *ineffective*.

A negative statement may be made by the use of a single negative.

I *cannot* understand you.

I *can hardly* understand you.

I *am unable* to understand you.

A mildly affirmative statement may be made by the use of two negatives:

He *could not misunderstand* my hint.

He *could hardly misunderstand* my hint.

He *couldn't help* understanding my hint.

I *don't* think he *misunderstood* my hint.

The expression of a negative idea by means of two negatives is either an illiterate blunder or a careless mistake.

**Illiterate:** We *couldn't* find him *nowhere*.

**Illiterate:** I *couldn't hardly* see.

**Illiterate:** He *couldn't* see *but* one side of the question.

**Illiterate:** There *weren't scarcely* a dozen people there.

**Careless:** It *won't* rain, I *don't* think.

The expression of a mildly affirmative idea by means of three negatives is illogical.

**Illogical:** He *couldn't help but* agree.

**Logical:** He *couldn't help* agreeing.

**Logical:** He *could not but* agree.

For the incorrect doubling of negatives, see Grammatical Problem 24.



## Adverbial Connectives

**265. Adverbial Connectives: What They Are.** An important class of words, adverbial in origin but used as connectives, may appropriately be called *Adverbial Connectives*. A list of them follows:

accordingly	furthermore	moreover	then
also	hence	nevertheless	therefore
besides	however	so	thus
consequently	indeed	still	

When one of these words is used as a modifier, it is of course to be considered an adverb. Examples of purely adverbial use follow:

He never complained, *however* much he suffered.

His situation was *indeed* desperate.

Have you ever been *thus* pestered before?

He was *then* forty-eight years old.

The words in the list are adverbial connectives when they are used, either with or without conjunctions, as connectives between clauses. In the following sentences they are used with conjunctions:

The car was old, *and besides* it had been abused.

The car was old, *but nevertheless* it had been used carefully.

In the following sentences the adverbial connectives are used without conjunctions:

The car was old; *consequently* its price was low.

The car was old; *indeed*, it was ready for the scrap-heap.

The car was old; *however*, we decided to buy it.

He knew the car was old; *then* he should not have misrepresented it.

It should be noted that any word group that serves the purpose of one of the words listed above is to be treated as an adverbial connective. Thus, *in addition* = *besides*;

*for all that* = *nevertheless*; *in consequence* = *consequently*; *in this manner* or *for example* = *thus*.

The car was old; *for all that*, it served our purpose well.

**266. Adverbial Connectives: How They Are Used.** An adverbial connective may be used to relate independent sentences.

The bank would lend us no money. We were obliged, *therefore*, to mortgage our beach property.

Are storm signals really flying? *Then* we had better remain in harbor.

If an adverbial connective is used with a coördinating conjunction, the clauses that it helps to join are of course principal clauses (82).

Patsy had forgotten the matches, *and therefore* we had to eat a cold luncheon.

If an adverbial connective is the only connective joining clauses, the clauses are principal clauses.

Patsy had forgotten the matches; *therefore* we had to eat a cold luncheon.

If an adverbial connective in one clause answers to a subordinating conjunction in another clause (e. g., *if . . . then*; *since . . . therefore*), the clauses form a complex sentence. Although an adverbial connective may be thus added to a sentence for the sake of emphasis, the use of it is, of course, unnecessary, and therefore redundant.

*If* you are right, *then* I must be wrong.

For the punctuation of sentences in which adverbial connectives are used, see Punctuation Problem 4.

## The Adverb: Forms and Uses Ex. 249-266

### EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 249-266

#### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. In each of the following sentences the word *when* has a different function. Explain each one. *When will you come? I haven't yet found a time when I could come. I'll come when I can.*

2. In the sentences *I don't know why he doesn't write* and *I don't know any reason why he shouldn't write*, what is the difference in the use of the adverb *why*?

3. In the sentence *When you arrive, set a time when I can see you*, which *when* functions as a conjunction (of adverbial origin), and which as a relative adverb?

4. How may the sentence *His writing was scarcely legible* be rephrased so as to bring out the fact that *scarcely* is a negative adverb?

5. In the sentences *He swam four miles* and *He swam too far*, what have the words *miles* and *far* in common, and how do they differ?

6. In the sentence *Though he had a princely income, he lived frugally*, what is the difference of function between *princely* and *frugally*?

7. In the sentence *I was wrong, but you guessed wrong too*, what difference in the functions of *wrong* is illustrated?

8. By what principle (that applies as well to adjectives as to adverbs) is the logic of the following sentence to be criticized? *He fumbles worse than any player on the team.*

9. In the following sentence, which *some* is in good use, and which is not? *Some twenty riders participated, and it was some exciting.*

10. Is the sentence *There weren't scarcely any people there* intended as a positive or as a negative statement? How many negatives does it contain?

11. How may the difference between an adverb and an adverbial connective be illustrated in the following sentences? *You can't do it, however hard you try. I may not be able to; however, I'll try hard.*

12. How does the difference in construction of the following sentences affect both the function of *therefore* and the punctuation that is appropriate with it? *Since  $x$  is greater than  $y$ , therefore  $2x$  must be greater than  $2y$ .  $X$  is greater than  $y$ ; therefore  $2x$  must be greater than  $2y$ .*

## EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Kinds of Adverbs.** How may each of the adverbs in the following sentences be classified?

[EXAMPLE. *How did so little a boy ever come here?*  
*How* is an adverb of manner, interrogative; *so*, of degree; *ever*, of time; *here* of place.]

1. I have never seen more perfect service than you find there.
2. How much more often do the trains go this year?
3. The crowd, moving slowly, was already far too great for comfort.
4. We always rise much earlier here than we ever do elsewhere.

**Uses of When, Where, etc.** What function is performed by *when*, *where*, etc., in each of the following sentences?

[EXAMPLE. *Do you know any stream where the fishing is better?* *Where* is a relative adverb, referring to *stream*.]

1. How is one to know when the stocks should be sold?
2. He would give me no reason why he was going.
3. When we arrived, the first act was nearly over.
4. The guide showed us the very spot where the armistice was signed.

**Adverbs and Adjectives Alike in Form.** The following sentences contain certain forms that may be either adverbs or adjectives. What function does each of these words perform?

[EXAMPLE. *The hour was late, and darkness was fast approaching.* *Late* is an adjective, modifying *hour*; *fast* is an adverb, modifying *was approaching*.]

## The Adverb: Forms and Uses Ex. 249-266

1. When I reached him he was pretty well exhausted.
2. His voice was loud, but it didn't carry far.
3. The trouble is, it won't stay clear very long.
4. As soon as I found I was on the wrong road, I stopped short.

**Comparison of Adverbs.** In each of the following sentences, what adverb is compared, and what is its degree?

[EXAMPLE. *The shoes squeaked worse every time I used them.* *Worse*; comparative degree.]

1. After the other boys arrived, the time seemed to go faster.
2. The fish always bite best at the turn of the tide.
3. I wrote far more legibly when I was a child.
4. Of all my friends, they are the ones who live most simply.

**Adverbial Connectives.** Which adverbs in the following sentences are adverbial connectives, and which are pure adverbs?

[EXAMPLE. *His mistakes were disastrous; indeed, they were calamitous.* *Indeed* is an adverbial connective.]

1. My mule was lame at the time; therefore I had to borrow one from the guide.
2. With the boat leaking so badly, the danger we were in was indeed serious.
3. The ranger had a station in the neighborhood, and thus we were able to receive mail each week.
4. It was a new, expensive racket; nevertheless it broke the first time I used it.

### TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow.

[EXAMPLE. *Relative adverb*: Please set a day *when* we may talk it over.]

1. An adverb of time
2. An adverb of place

3. An adverb of manner
4. An adverb of degree
5. A relative adverb
6. A negative adverb
7. A noun in adverbial use
8. A word in *ly* that is not an adverb
9. An adverb having the same form as an adjective
10. An adverb in the comparative degree, irregular
11. An adverb in the superlative degree, regular
12. *Some* in correct adverbial use
13. *Likely* in correct adverbial use
14. *So* used after a negative adverb
15. A double negative expressing mild affirmation
16. *Hardly* in correct negative use

## THE PREPOSITION

### Forms of Prepositions

**267. Definition.** For the definition of the preposition and an explanation of its use, see 23 and 68.

**268. Simple and Compound Prepositions.** The list of simple prepositions, those consisting of single words, includes such common words as *at, by, in, of, to, under*; it includes also several words in *ing*, like *concerning, regarding*, which were once participles but are now used as prepositions.

Did I write *to* you *concerning* my plans *for* next year?

The list of compound prepositions, those consisting of more than one word each, includes such examples as *as to, because of, by means of, for the sake of, on account of, with regard to*.

*Because of* a slight illness, I have not yet written you *in regard to* my plans.

**269. Prepositions vs. Other Parts of Speech.** Certain words, like *below, down, off, past*, are either prepositions or adverbs; the form of such a word, therefore, is not enough to show its part of speech.

**Preposition:** The fruit fell *off* the tree at the first touch.

**Adverb:** The fruit fell *off* at the first touch.

Certain other words, like *for* and *since*, are either prepositions or conjunctions; the form of such a word, therefore, is not enough to show its part of speech.

**Preposition:** I haven't seen him *since* Thursday.

**Conjunction:** I haven't seen him *since* he returned.

For examples of punctuation helping to indicate the true function of words that might be misunderstood, see 304 and Punctuation Problem 6.

### Correct Use of Prepositions

**270. *Different* Followed by *From*.** The use of the word *different* often requires special care. In the first place, it should not be followed by *than*, a conjunction; *from*, the preposition, is required by American usage.

His way of doing it is different *from* [not *than*] mine.

Again, the expression *different from* should be used to compare only persons or things that can be compared (244).

**Incorrect:** His *service* is different from *anyone* I know.

*Service* and *anyone* cannot be compared. The insertion of *that* or *those* makes unnecessary a repetition of the first term of the comparison.

His *service* is different from the *service* of anyone I know.

His *service* is different from *that* of anyone I know.

**271. Preposition at the End of a Sentence.** The placing of a preposition at the end of a clause or of a sentence is not always to be condemned as incorrect. Awkwardness, it is true, often results from so placing a preposition.

**Awkward:** We marveled at the ease *which* he did it *with*.

But in colloquial speech and informal writing this same order is sometimes to be preferred for its easy naturalness.

This indeed was a difficult position to be put *in*.

Are you the man *whom* I sent *for*?

**272. Other Problems in the Use of Prepositions.** For the distinction between the prepositions *among* and *be-*



*tween*, see 346. For the undesirable use of unnecessary prepositions (e. g., where . . . *at*, off *of*, meet *up*, etc.), see 341. For the idiomatic use of prepositions, see 342-343.

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 267-272

### QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. May a compound preposition be substituted for *for* in the following sentence? *I would not so sacrifice myself for anybody else.*

2. In each of the following sentences, what part of speech is down? *We went down with lightning speed. We went down the shaft with lightning speed.*

3. In the sentences *He has seemed a different man since his recovery* and *He has seemed a different man since he recovered*, what different functions has the word *since*?

4. In the sentences *He is very different from his brother* and *He is far cleverer than his brother is*, what are the different functions of *from* and *than*?

5. Why is the first of the following sentences correct and the second incorrect? *His form is better than that of any other runner on the team. His form is better than any other runner on the team.*

6. How may the following sentence be improved? *I sent it back to the man whom I had received it from.*

### EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Simple and Compound Prepositions.** Which are the simple and which are the compound prepositions in the following sentences?

[EXAMPLE. *At the end of every month I shall hope to hear from you in regard to your progress.* Simple prepositions: *at*, *of*, *from*; compound preposition: *in regard to*.]

1. Because of this lameness, Byron was always morbidly conscious of himself except when he was among old friends.

2. Instead of finding his own way out of the difficulty, he wrote to his father for more money.

3. As for Chester, he succeeded, by dint of much questioning, in learning all about it before the evening was over.

4. According to Fitz, the tramp shuffled out of the house without making it clear what he had been sent for.

**Prepositions and Other Parts of Speech.** Which words in the following sentences are prepositions, which are conjunctions, and which are adverbs? What function has each of these selected words?

[EXAMPLE. *Wait for me below, until you hear me call.*  
*For* is a preposition, with *me* as its object; *below* is an adverb modifying *wait*; *until* is a conjunction introducing the clause *until you hear me call.*]

1. I went down and brushed the snow off the steps before anybody came.

2. After the steamer had gone past, it was soon below the horizon.

3. He hadn't been below the rapids since he had gone down with his father.

4. Within the house we were in total darkness, for the lights had been turned off.

#### TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow.

[EXAMPLE. *A compound preposition: He did it out of kindness.*]

1. A simple preposition

2. A compound preposition

3. *Past* in prepositional use

4. *Until* in prepositional use

5. *From* in correct use after *different*

6. A preposition, natural rather than awkward, at the end of a sentence

## THE CONJUNCTION

### Coördinating Conjunctions

**273. Definition.** For the definition of the coördinating conjunction and an explanation of its normal use, see 25 and 276.

For the compound conjunction, see 66.

**274. Correlative Conjunctions.** Conjunctions used in pairs are called *Correlative Conjunctions*. The important correlatives are the following: *both . . . and*, *not only . . . but also*, *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*. They are used with coördinate sentence elements (101).

For the use of parallel construction with correlative conjunctions, see Grammatical Problem 27.

**275. Use of *Or* and *Nor*.** When *neither* is used as a correlative before one sentence element, *nor* should be used before the corresponding one.

He was *neither* for the proposal *nor* against it.

He *neither* definitely accepted *nor* definitely refused the nomination.

When a preceding clause is negative, *nor* may appropriately introduce a following clause.

I have *never* read the book; *nor*, to tell the truth, have I wanted to read it.

When a negative is so placed that it affects both of two following alternatives, *or*, not *nor*, is the appropriate connective.

He has *no* tact *or* judgment.

I have *never* seen *or* heard of him before.

I did *not* want to hurt *or* in any way offend him.

For the use of *or* or *nor* after a negative, see Grammatical Problem 24.

**276. Elements Joined by Coördinating Conjunctions.** The groups of words that coördinating conjunctions (25) join include not only phrases and other sentence elements but also entire sentences.

**Phrases:** He wrote *to the mayor* and *to each of the supervisors*.

**Clauses:** He wrote *to the supervisors*, but he saw the mayor personally.

**Predicates:** He saw the mayor personally and wrote to each of the supervisors.

**Sentences:** To each of the supervisors he sent a copy of a long, carefully prepared letter. But to the mayor he took the letter in person.

### Subordinating Conjunctions

**277. Definition.** For the definition of the subordinating conjunction and an explanation of its normal use, see 26 and 79.

**278. The Conjunction *For*.** The conjunction *for* is sometimes, though infrequently, used to introduce a sentence, and under these exceptional circumstances it may be regarded as a coördinating conjunction. When it introduces a clause of explanation, its function is not radically different from that of *because* or *since*, subordinating conjunctions.

***Because:*** He turned in early *because* he needed rest.

***For:*** He turned in early, *for* he needed rest.

The comma preceding *for* shows that the word is not a preposition (304).

It is noteworthy that whereas *and*, *but*, *or*, and *nor* may be used to relate word to word, phrase to phrase, etc., *for*, like the subordinating conjunctions, is used only to join complete assertions.

## Idiomatic Use of Conjunctions

**279. Words That Are Not Conjunctions.** For *being as*, not in good use as a conjunction, see 338.

For the form *providing*, which is not in good use as a conjunction, see 341.

For *like* and *without*, in good use as prepositions but not as conjunctions, see 344.

**280. Conjunctions Frequently Misused.** *As* is a conjunction that should be used with special care. In formal writing it should not be used in place of *that*.

I don't know *that* [not *as*] I care to meet him.

When another conjunction, such as *since*, *because*, *when*, or *while*, is appropriate, it is better to use one of these precise words than it is to use the weaker and sometimes ambiguous *as*.

*Because* [not *as*] I was walking to town anyway, I volunteered to post his letter.

*While* [not *as*] I was still considering his offer, I learned that his firm was nearly bankrupt.

*While* is always an appropriate conjunction to use in the sense of "during the time that." When, however, another conjunction, like *although*, *though*, *whereas*, or *and*, can be appropriately used, *while* is usually a weak or ambiguous substitute.

*Though* [not *while*] I was not enthusiastic about taking office, I accepted the nomination.

Parsons has almost completed his thesis, *whereas* [not *while*]

Calkins has hardly begun his.

You will do day duty, *and* [not *while*] Miss Evans will take the night shift.

For *doubt that*, preferable to *doubt but what*, see 341.

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 273-280

## QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. In the sentences *He was disagreeable to his wife and harsh to his children* and *He was not only disagreeable to his wife but also harsh to his children*, what difference is there in the kind of conjunctions used?

2. In which of the following sentences is *nor* a correlative conjunction? *We have never avoided our neighbors, nor have we sought out their company.* *We have neither avoided our neighbors nor sought out their company.*

3. Why is one of the following sentences logical and the other not? *Don't you have any books nor magazines that I might read?* *Don't you have any books or magazines that I might read?*

4. In the sentence *We put out both anchors, for a storm was brewing*, what subordinating conjunction may be substituted for *for*?

5. What substituted conjunction will improve the following sentence? *I don't know as I have ever read it.*

6. What ambiguity is found in the following sentence, and by the use of what conjunctions may first one, then the other, meaning be made clear? *As I am going past his house, I can easily give him your message.*

7. In the following sentence, what conjunction should be substituted for *while*? *My wife is an enthusiastic tennis player, while I am a golf fiend.*

## EXAMPLES TO IDENTIFY

**Coördinating Conjunctions.** Which are the coördinating conjunctions in the following sentences, and what words or word groups are joined by each?

[EXAMPLE. *He was equally good at forehand and at backhand strokes. And joins at forehand and at backhand.*]

1. That summer she seemed to bore or to antagonize everybody she met.

2. The weather was cold, but the house was very well heated.

3. Not a house was to be seen. Nor, he knew, was there a filling station within a dozen miles.

4. The water was shallow near the shore, but much deeper a little way out.

**Correlative Conjunctions.** What correlative conjunctions are used in the following sentences, and what kinds of sentence elements do they connect?

[EXAMPLE. *He was neither elated by victory nor depressed by defeat.* Neither and nor join participles modified by phrases.]

1. She found the course not only uninteresting but also positively boring.

2. Either the new wage scale must be accepted, or the factory will have to be closed.

3. His attitude was both humiliating to his wife and embarrassing to the other guests.

4. Not only was the place full of mosquitoes, but also the nights were intolerably hot.

**Subordinating Conjunctions.** What are the subordinating conjunctions in the following sentences, and what adverbial relationship is expressed by the clause introduced by each?

[EXAMPLE. *Since Betty had a caller, I took her place at the card table.* Since introduces a clause expressing cause.]

1. Put them in water at once so that they will not wither.

2. Though I entered the class late, I was soon on even terms with the others.

3. The train was late, so that we caught it after all.

4. Pop them in as soon as the water is boiling hard.

## TERMS TO ILLUSTRATE

Illustrate in a short sentence each of the terms that follow.

[EXAMPLE. *Correlative conjunctions*: The day was  
[*neither* hot *nor* cold.]

1. Coördinating conjunction
2. Correlative conjunctions
3. *Nor* after a negative
4. *Or* after a negative
5. A subordinating conjunction expressing time
6. A subordinating conjunction expressing result



# Punctuation Material

## PUNCTUATION TO TERMINATE

**281. Terminal Punctuation.** Punctuation that comes at the end of a sentence is *Terminal Punctuation*. Terminal-punctuation marks are the period, the question mark, and the exclamation point. The use of the dash as a terminal-punctuation mark is exceptional.

**282. Terminal Punctuation Determined by Intent.** A declarative (109) or an imperative (110) sentence calls for a period; an interrogative (111) sentence calls for a question mark; an exclamatory (112) sentence calls for an exclamation point.

I shall never forget that night.

Must you really go?

How stupid that was of me!

Ordinarily the intent of a sentence is shown by its form. Thus, in the examples just given, the declarative sentence is in the form of a statement; the interrogative sentence is in the form of a question; etc. Sometimes, however, the intent of a sentence and the form of it do not correspond; its intent, for example, may be to ask a question, but its form may be that of a statement. When intent and form do not correspond, it is the intent, not the form, that determines what the terminal punctuation shall be. Compare, for example, the intent and the form of the following sentences:

Will you please close the door, Harry.

You are not really going so soon?

That was a night to remember!

Did you ever see such stupidity!

A sentence that is broken off unexpectedly is terminated by a dash.

If you do that again, I'll — No, I don't think I will, either.

**283. Terminal Punctuation after Indirect Question.** After an indirect question (76) the period is used if the principal clause (82) makes a statement or a request; a question mark is used if the principal clause asks a question.

I forgot to ask him whether he had brought evening dress.

Ask him whether he has brought evening dress.

Do you know whether he has brought evening dress?

**284. Irregular Use of Terminal-Punctuation Marks.** Terminal-punctuation marks are sometimes used for rhetorical effect elsewhere than at the end of a sentence. The following typical examples explain themselves.

Have you looked in the barn? in the cellar? down the road?

Just think of going to Greece! and Italy! and Egypt!

Mr. Hoffmann — is that the way you spell him? — told me.

**285. The Period Fault.** Since terminal punctuation is appropriate only after a grammatically complete sentence (compare, however, 286), it is incorrect to use a period for separating a dependent sentence element from the rest of the sentence of which it should form a part. The grave error that results from so doing is known as the *Period Fault*. The varieties of the period fault follow:

*Incorrect period separating introductory clause.* A period should not be used to separate an introductory clause from the rest of the sentence.

**Period fault:** If Mr. Sharpe is in doubt of your ability to do the work. You may use my name as a reference.

*Incorrect period separating final clause.* A period should not be used to separate a final clause from the rest of the sentence.

**Period fault:** You may use my name as a reference. If Mr. Sharpe is in doubt of your ability to do the work.  
Or I might send him a personal letter. Which would testify to my own confidence in you.

*Incorrect period separating introductory phrase.* A period should not be used to separate an introductory phrase from the rest of the sentence.

**Period fault:** According to my map of this part of the country.  
There was no landing field within fifty miles.

*Incorrect period separating final phrase.* A period should not be used to separate a final phrase from the rest of the sentence.

**Period fault:** There was no landing field within fifty miles.  
According to my map of this part of the country.

*Incorrect period separating appositive phrase.* A period should not be used to separate an appositive phrase from the rest of the sentence.

**Period fault:** Luckily we soon sighted just what we wanted. A smooth and level pasture free from trees.

For the problem of the period fault, see Punctuation Problem 1.

**286. Terminal Punctuation after Sentence Element.** A sentence element may, by exception, be punctuated as a complete sentence if, as in the reply to a question, the clause on which it depends is understood, though not expressed.

When can you come? [I can come] *Whenever you please.*  
When can you come? [I can come] *Tomorrow.*

It should be noted, also, that experienced writers sometimes punctuate a sentence element as a complete sentence deliberately, for the sake of rhetorical effect.

**287. Separate Sentences or Independent Clauses.** Comparison of the following sentences shows that the same ideas may be expressed either in separate sentences or in clauses of a single compound sentence :

He did no studying that term. He was having too good a time.

He did no studying that term ; he was having too good a time.

When the problem of sentences or clauses is in question, the purpose of the writer should govern his choice. Writing the units separately emphasizes each equally, but implies nothing as to any special relationship existing between them. Combining them lessens somewhat the separate emphasis on each, but distinctly implies a relationship between the two.

## PUNCTUATION TO SEPARATE

### Independent Clauses

**288. Methods of Signaling Structure.** When two independent clauses (82) stand side by side in a sentence, the reader should know instantly when one unit ends and another begins. Complete failure to indicate the point of separation constitutes the *Sentence Fault*. That this failure is annoying to the reader is illustrated in the following example:

It was a stupid mistake I stammered my apologies.

There are three ways of signaling to the reader that one independent clause is complete and another is to begin: (1) by means of a coordinating conjunction, (2) by means of punctuation and a conjunction, and (3) by means of punctuation alone. They are here illustrated:

It was a stupid mistake *and* I stammered my apologies.

It was a stupid mistake, *and* I stammered my apologies.

It was a stupid mistake ; I stammered my apologies.

**289. Only a Conjunction between Clauses.** If it is recognized at once that a coordinating conjunction following a principal clause leads to another principal clause, the conjunction itself is the only signal required. Such is usually the case when both clauses are very short.

The day was hot *and* the road was long.

**290. Punctuation and Conjunction between Clauses.** If independent clauses joined by a conjunction are fairly long, as they usually are, the reader welcomes a comma

before the conjunction as a sure sign that a new clause is about to begin (see Punctuation Problem 2).

The day that we had chosen for our trip was intolerably hot, *and* we had a long journey before us.

Sometimes, moreover, an important coördinating conjunction joining clauses might be mistaken for a less important one joining words in a clause. A comma before the important conjunction prevents such a mistake, and is, therefore, especially useful. Note that the commas in the following sentences prevent the italicized words from being read as parts of the same clause (see Punctuation Problem 6).

The day that we had chosen was *hot and sultry, and long miles* stretched before us.

We had chosen for our expedition *a hot day, and a long journey* lay before us.

If the comma is used within one or both of two principal clauses, a mark stronger than the comma should emphasize the separation of the clauses themselves. A semicolon before the coördinating conjunction serves the purpose.

When the day finally arrived, it was, unfortunately, very hot; *and* the journey, it must be confessed, looked very long.

It may happen, too, that the meaning of a sentence gives special reason for emphasizing the separation of the clauses. The semicolon serves this purpose also (see Punctuation Problem 2).

Nan had prophesied all along that the day we had chosen would be hot; *and* it was.

**291. Punctuation of Principal Clauses in Series.** If more than two short principal clauses form a series (93), the comma is usually sufficient to separate the members, whether *and* is or is not used (see Punctuation Problem 3).

The day was hot, the way was long, *and* the road was dusty.

If there is any reason (see 290) for emphasizing the separation of the clauses, the semicolon may be used instead.

**292. Only Punctuation between Clauses.** If a sentence consists of two principal clauses (82) standing side by side, with no coördinating conjunction (25) between them, how may the structure of the sentence be signaled instantly to the reader? A comma would not serve the purpose, for it would imply structure of some other kind. Thus, it might imply that a principal clause is to be followed by a participial phrase, as in the following example:

Nobody called that day, everybody having gone to the game.  
Or it might imply that principal clauses are to follow each other in series, as in the following example:

Nobody called that day, no letters came, and even the telephone bell did not ring.

No such misunderstanding can arise, however, if a semicolon separates the clauses, as in the following example:

Nobody called that day; everybody had gone to the game.

**293. The Comma Fault.** It is of first importance that a writer should realize, and should signal to the reader, the structure of his sentences. The placing of a comma where a stronger mark of punctuation is called for, the so-called *Comma Fault*, is therefore an especially serious error. The varieties of the comma fault follow:

*Incorrect comma when terminal punctuation is required.*  
The comma, obviously, should not be used where terminal punctuation (281) is called for.

**Comma fault:** I refused point-blank, wouldn't you have done the same?

**Comma fault:** Where shall we hide it most quickly, we haven't a minute to spare.

**Comma fault:** What a splendid place that is for it, nobody would think of looking there.

*Incorrect comma when connective is lacking.* When the relation between two independent clauses is established by the sense alone, without the help of any expressed connective, the comma should not be used.

**Comma fault:** We couldn't use the flag pole, the rope was broken.

*Incorrect comma when reference word is used.* When the grammatical connectives between principal clauses are adverbial expressions or certain pronouns, the comma should not be used. Note that connectives like *this*, *there*, and *then* introduce principal clauses which fall under the rule, whereas connectives like *which*, *where*, and *when* introduce subordinate clauses (83) which do not.

**Comma fault:** Tomorrow the French celebrate the Fall of the Bastille, *this* is their Independence Day.

**Correct:** Tomorrow the French celebrate the Fall of the Bastille, *which* is their Independence Day.

**Comma fault:** We went straight to the Dresden Museum, *there* we saw the Sistine Madonna.

**Correct:** We went straight to the Dresden Museum, *where* we saw the Sistine Madonna.

**Comma fault:** It took four hours for the boat to reach the pier, *by this time* a drizzling rain had begun to fall.

**Correct:** It took four hours for the boat to reach the pier, *by which time* a drizzling rain had begun to fall.

For the problem of the comma fault, see Punctuation Problem 3.

**294. The Comma Fault with Adverbial Connective.** When the relation between independent clauses is expressed by an adverbial connective or its equivalent (265), the comma should not be used (see Punctuation Problem 4).

**Comma fault:** Overproduction had for some time been excessive, *therefore* a sharp fall in prices was expected.

**Comma fault:** Overproduction had for some time been excessive, *for that reason* a sharp fall in prices was expected.



**295. Correct Use of Comma with Adverbial Connective.**

A coördinating conjunction used with an adverbial connective justifies the use of the comma (266).

Overproduction had for some time been excessive, *and therefore* a sharp fall in prices was expected.

It should be noted, too, that a sentence in which an adverbial connective stands may be a complex, not a compound sentence. The essential connective in the sentence that follows, for example, is not *therefore* but the subordinating conjunction *since* (for which reason the word *therefore*, though permissible, is superfluous).

*Since* the sum of the three angles is two right angles, *therefore* the sum of the angles opposite the right angle is one right angle.

For the correct and incorrect use of the comma with an adverbial connective, see Punctuation Problem 4.

**296. Punctuation of So-Clauses.** By the strict rule (294), when *so* is the only connective between clauses, a semicolon should precede the word. In actual practice a comma is often used instead. This fact, however, is not sufficient reason for disregarding the rule. Inexperienced writers are prone to overuse *so*, at the expense of other appropriate conjunctions.

**Loose:** A doctor happened to be in the house, *so* we did not have to call one.

**Compact:** *Since* a doctor happened to be in the house, we did not have to call one.

It is well for an inexperienced writer to avoid the use of *so* as a connective. If he does thus use it, he should always place the semicolon before it; he then becomes aware that he is using the word, and is less likely to overuse it.

**297. Semicolon or Colon between Principal Clauses.** When principal clauses (82) are separated by punctuation

only, the semicolon is the mark that is usually appropriate, especially when one clause explains the other.

It can be hot there; the mountains effectually shut off all the sea breezes.

Somehow I couldn't read; I was too restless.

The colon is appropriate when the two clauses say the same thing in different ways; as, for example, when one clause is general and the other particular, or when one is positive and the other is negative.

It can be hot there: even the lizards shun the noonday glare. Somehow I couldn't read: I could only pace restlessly to and fro.

### Other Sentence Elements

**298. Introduction and Quotation.** If a quoted sentence introduced by *he said* or its equivalent is used as a substantive clause (73), a comma normally separates the introductory words and the quotation.

The lawyer began by asking, "What is your name?"

But

I resented being asked such questions as "What is your name?"

If, however, the introductory words express or imply *as follows*, a colon should stand between introduction and quotation.

The lawyer began as follows: "What is your name?"

This was the lawyer's first question: "What is your name?"

**299. Introduction and Incorporated Sentence.** If a sentence used as a substantive clause completes a larger sentence (73), the incorporated sentence is separated from the introductory words by a comma or a colon, just as a quoted sentence would be (298).

The question that nobody could answer was, Who was he?

This was the question that nobody could answer: Who was he?

Note, however, that substantive clauses in indirect discourse are not thus separated (76 and 307).

**300. Introduction and Formal Enumeration.** A series of items introduced by *the following* or by some other expression that specially notifies the reader to expect a list is called a *Formal Enumeration*. In formal enumeration, introduction and list are separated by the colon.

Our cargo consisted of *the following* products: hides, wool, coffee, and hardware.

*This* was the curiously assorted cargo that our little schooner carried: hides, wool, coffee, and hardware.

Our cargo consisted of *these four products*: hides, wool, coffee, and hardware.

It will be noted that in the preceding sentences the words *following*, *this*, and *these four* give formal notification that a list is to be expected.

If there is no expression that specially notifies the reader to expect a list, the enumeration is not formal, and the list is not separated by punctuation from the words that introduce it.

Our little schooner carried hides, wool, coffee, and hardware.

Our cargo consisted of hides, wool, coffee, and hardware.

The articles we carried as cargo were hides, wool, coffee, and hardware.

When a list is introduced by *namely* (or its equivalent, *viz.*) the punctuation is that of a delayed appositive similarly introduced (59).

Our cargo consisted of four products — namely, hides, wool, coffee, and hardware.

For punctuation and form in enumerations, see Punctuation Problem 13.

**301. Sentences Forming a Series.** If one of the items forming a series is a sentence, all of them, the first as well

as the others, should be written and punctuated as separate sentences.

**Incorrect:** Three questions had first to be decided : who should go? Where should we go? When should we go?

**Correct:** Three questions had first to be decided : Who should go? Where should we go? When should we go?

**302. Clauses or Phrases Forming a Series.** If one of the items forming a series is a clause, all of them should be clauses. Between the items of such a series the semicolon is the appropriate separating mark.

Three questions had first to be decided : whom we should invite ; where we should go ; and when we should start.

If one of the items is a phrase, all of them should be phrases. Between the items of such a series the comma is usually the appropriate separating mark, though the semicolon is sometimes justified (see Punctuation Problem 5).

Our discussion centered upon three points : choosing our party, determining our destination, and deciding on the time for starting.

**303. Words Forming a Series.** Words or equivalent sentence elements forming a series are normally separated by commas, thus : -----, -----, and (or) -----.

Molly had a way of *skipping, dancing, hopping, or running* ; but she never walked sedately.

Although some writers do not use a comma before the *and* (or) that connects the last two items of a series, the use of a comma in such a place is advisable. The separateness of the last two items is always better emphasized if a comma precedes the *and* than if the *and* alone is used. This separateness, moreover, needs specially to be emphasized when two distinct items might be wrongly interpreted as parts of one compound item. In the following sentence,

for example, the omission of the comma between the last two items might make it appear that *marmalade* and *coffee* were, like *rolls* and *butter*, parts of one compound item :

My breakfast always consists of *cereal, bacon and eggs, rolls and butter, marmalade, and coffee.*

It should be noted that adjectives may follow one after the other without being in series. For the distinction between adjectives that form a series and those that form an inseparable word group, see 95.

For the problem of punctuating items in series, see Punctuation Problem 5.

**304. Words That Might be Misinterpreted.** In reading some sentences, one may need to pause between two words in order to prevent the hearer from misunderstanding the intended meaning. Under such circumstances a comma (or occasionally two commas; see 316) should be inserted as a signal to the reader that a pause is required.

1. Sometimes it is necessary to insert a comma between two words to indicate the true function of one or both of the words. Thus, the comma in the following sentence shows that *below* is an adverb, not a preposition (269).

*Below*, the men seemed no larger than ants.

In the following sentence the comma shows that *for* is a conjunction, not a preposition having *supper* for its object (269) :

I can't stay, *for* supper is ready for me at home.

2. Sometimes it is necessary to insert a comma to show at what point in the sentence some omitted word or words should be supplied. Thus, the comma in the following sentence shows that *wanted* is to be supplied after *Mary*.

I wanted pie for dessert ; but Mary, stewed fruit.

3. For the comma before *and*, to show that the conjunction joins clauses but not words within a clause, see 290.

For the use of punctuation to prevent misunderstanding, see Punctuation Problem 6.

**305. The Dash Representing a Rhetorical Pause.** Words before which there would be, in speech, a distinct rhetorical pause are separated from what goes before by a dash. A dash may represent hesitant speech.

"Is it — you?" whispered Mrs. Calthorp.

Or it may represent an abrupt change in the form of a sentence.

"She promised to write, but — have you heard from her?"

A pause before a delayed appositive (59) may be considered a mildly rhetorical pause.

There was one person whom he was fully determined to see — his old schoolmaster.

Hides, wool, coffee, and hardware — these constituted our cargo.

The use of the dash should be reserved strictly for appropriate occasions. The free use of it for indicating pauses of every kind is a sign of slovenly writing.

### Incorrect Separating Punctuation

**306. The Principle of Undesirable Separation.** Good punctuation within a sentence helps the reader to grasp relationships easily. If the continuity of a sentence is distinctly broken at any point, separating punctuation is desirable. If, however, the continuity should be unbroken, punctuation that breaks it is undesirable.

When each sentence element in a continuously moving sentence is a single word, a writer feels no impulse to separate one word from another. Thus,

Dr. Templeton holds the cup permanently.

When, however, one of the sentence elements is a clause, a writer sometimes feels an impulse to emphasize the unity of that clause by separating it from the rest of the sentence. Thus,

**Undesirable:** Whoever wins, holds the cup permanently.

This punctuation, to be sure, emphasizes the unity of the clause *whoever wins*, but it obscures the fact that the clause, a subject, is closely related to *holds*, its verb. The reader, indeed, might easily expect an entirely separate construction to follow *whoever wins*, as in the following sentence:

Whoever wins, nobody can claim the championship.

In the following version of the original sentence the reader recognizes instantly that *whoever wins* is a clause, and he recognizes too that it is closely related to the words that follow:

Whoever wins holds the cup permanently.

**307. Application of the Principle.** Separating commas which obscure close relationships are undesirable.

It will be observed that there are certain close relationships that should not be obscured: (1) that between subject and verb, verb and object, etc. (37-46); (2) that between an adjective and its substantive when the adjective stands first. For the relationship between a word and an essential modifier that follows it, see 98.

It will be observed, too, that there are certain types of word groups that do not need to be separated from closely related words: (1) a long complete subject, (2) a substantive clause as subject, (3) a list of items as subject, and (4) a clause of indirect discourse (76).

No comma between subject and verb:

*The hilarious crowd of hoarse and excited partisans of the victorious team* now surged over the bleachers to the field. [Long complete subject]

*That the team had worked faithfully in the face of overwhelming odds* made the final victory sweeter. [Substantive clause as subject]

*Peas, beans, and lettuce* grew in our kitchen garden. [List of items as subject]

No comma between verb and object in indirect discourse:

The garage man said *that our oil pump was not working*. [Indirect statement]

Everyone was wondering *who would catch the bride's bouquet*. [Indirect question]

No comma between verb and predicate nominative:

The most perplexing question of all was *whether I should go to college*. [Indirect question]

No comma between object and adjunct objective:

We used to tease Mother by calling her "*She who must be obeyed*." [Substantive word group]

No comma between adjective and substantive:

I shall never go back to that *cold, wet, changeable* climate.

For lists of items that are not formally introduced, and therefore are not separated by punctuation from the words that introduce them, see 300.

For the incorrect use of separating commas, see Punctuation Problem 7.



## PUNCTUATION TO SET OFF

**308. What Setting Off Is.** It is sometimes desirable to show that a word or a word group is not to be taken as belonging to the main body of the sentence. This purpose may be accomplished by punctuation that *Sets Off*. The part set off may come at the beginning of the sentence, in the midst of it, or at its end.

The marks used for setting off will be explained first, and the appropriate use of these marks will be discussed later.

**309. Setting Off between Parentheses.** A word or word group may be set off between a pair of parentheses.

It should be noted that if a sentence within parentheses is inserted within another sentence, the inserted sentence should not begin with a capital letter or end with a period, though it may end with a question mark or with an exclamation point.

Phil has just received a scholarship (he told me so himself) for a year of study abroad.

Phil has just received a scholarship (isn't he a lucky dog!) for a year of study abroad.

It should also be noted that a comma never precedes the first mark of parenthesis. A comma may, however, follow the final mark of parenthesis if it is called for by the main body of the sentence.

Now that Phil has received his scholarship (did he tell you of it?), he will go abroad for a year of study.

The use of punctuation marks accompanying brackets (315) is the same as that accompanying parentheses.

"When victory comes, as it shall come [cheers], you may feel that you have done your part."

For matter abruptly inserted between parentheses, see 313 and Punctuation Problem 12.

**310. Setting Off with the Dash.** A pair of dashes may be used for setting off a word or a word group that interrupts the continuity of a sentence (89).

When a word group is inserted between dashes, the word group should not begin with a capital letter or end with a period, though it may end with a question mark or with an exclamation point.

He then opened a *groceteria* — obnoxious word — of his own.

In the illustrative sentence just given, note that there is (1) an original sentence, (2) an inserted word group, and (3) a point in the original sentence at which the insertion is made. If there is, in the original sentence, no comma at the point where the insertion comes, no comma accompanies either of the dashes.

If, however, the original sentence calls for a comma at the point where the insertion comes, the writer has a choice: he may use a comma before each of the dashes, or he may, preferably, use dashes without commas.

He opened a *groceteria*, but it soon failed.

He opened a *groceteria*, — obnoxious word, — but it soon failed.

He opened a *groceteria* — obnoxious word — but it soon failed.

For matter abruptly inserted between dashes, see Punctuation Problem 12.

**311. Setting Off with the Comma.** If matter to be set off by the comma comes either at the beginning or at the end of the main body of the sentence, one comma is, of course, sufficient.

Jack, tell me just what happened.

Tell me just what happened, Jack.

If, however, the matter to be set off comes somewhere in the midst of the sentence, two commas are required; and unless both are used, the interruption is not properly set off.

Tell me, Jack, just what happened.

**312. Effect of Incomplete Setting Off.** A word or word group set off between two commas checks slightly the continuity of a sentence, but does not actually break it, as separating punctuation does. Thus, in the following sentence there is felt to be no real separation between the subject, *skipper*, and its verb, *was*:

The skipper, on the other hand, was surly from the first.

If, however, one of the required commas is carelessly omitted, the single comma that remains becomes a separating mark at a point where separation is undesirable (306-307). In each of the following sentences, for example, the single comma between subject and verb is undesirable:

**Incorrect:** The skipper, on the other hand was surly from the first.

**Incorrect:** The skipper on the other hand, was surly from the first.

It is important, therefore, that care be taken to punctuate both before and after an interrupting expression.

For words or word groups that are insufficiently set off, see Punctuation Problem 8.

**313. Setting Off Abrupt Insertions.** An abrupt insertion is a word or word group, complete and independent, that could be omitted from the sentence in which it is inserted without affecting the meaning or structure of that sentence. Parentheses formally emphasize the abruptness of such an insertion, but a pair of dashes may be used when

an effect of informality is appropriate. The following examples illustrate the difference:

Doric architecture (consult the dictionary for typical illustrations) was characterized by strength and simplicity.

There are several lives of Pasteur (that by Vallery-Radot is considered the best), but not all of them have been translated.

Folk-etymology explains such words as *sparrow-grass* (cf. Greenough and Kittredge, *Words and Their Ways*).

Why is it that the opera—I mean the standard, classical opera—is so often financially unsuccessful?

My cousin Tom—how you used to hate him!—has just written me from the Argentine.

For matter abruptly inserted between parentheses or between dashes, see Punctuation Problem 12.

**314. Setting Off Incidental Details.** A bit of detailed information inserted in a sentence may be shown to be merely incidental by being set off between parentheses. By the same device an addition to a sentence may be shown to be relatively unimportant, as if said under the breath.

The English word *buttery* meant originally the place where the butts and bottles were kept (Late Latin *botaria*, meaning “cask”).

You will find him (if he is to be found at all) in the lobby.

For incidental details set off between parentheses, see Punctuation Problem 12.

**315. Setting Off Editorial Insertions.** Editorial insertions in quoted matter are insertions that have been supplied, not by the author of the quotation, but by the editor who has prepared the quotation for print. Thus, *sic* (the Latin word meaning “so”) may be inserted to inform the reader that a fault in the text is being copied exactly, and

that the editor is not responsible for it. Brackets are appropriate for editorial insertions.

"When you sing," he wrote, "sing like [sic] you meant it."

"At the time of his appointment [1836] he was only twenty-two years old."

For editorial insertions set off between brackets, see Punctuation Problem 12.

For the use of brackets in expanding a quoted sentence, see 327.

**316. Setting Off Parenthetical Matter.** When words or word groups belonging to a sentence are so inserted that they interrupt continuity, they are said to be parenthetical (89). Different types of parenthetical matter, correctly set off, follow:

Parenthetical clauses are usually set off between commas.

These glasses, since they prevent the penetration of certain light waves, protect the eyes from glare.

He could not, he wrote to the general, hold out two days longer.

It should be noted, however, that short, closely related clauses such as *do you suppose* are not set off between commas.

Whom *do you suppose* I met at the station?

Parenthetical phrases are usually set off between commas.

These glasses, by preventing the penetration of certain light waves, protect the eyes from glare.

Words of address (55) are set off between commas.

That's the kind of advertising, Mr. Phelps, that nobody ever reads.

Adverbs and adverbial connectives (265) that interrupt the continuity of a sentence are set off between commas.

That's the kind of advertising, unfortunately, that nobody ever reads.

That's the kind of advertising, moreover, that nobody ever reads.

Lightly exclamatory expressions are set off between commas.

That's the kind of advertising, alas, that nobody ever reads.

Words that might be misinterpreted may be advantageously set off between commas. Thus, compare the following pairs of sentences:

Come here, *now*, and explain yourself.

Come here *now*, and I shall give you the recipe at once.

He had never heard, *before*, the story of his father's courtship.

He had never heard, *before* the story was told him by his aunt, how his father had conducted his courtship.

*And so forth* and its abbreviation, *etc.*, are set off between commas.

Your golfers, with their constant talk of mashies, putts, slices, etc., do not interest me.

For the setting off of parenthetical matter, see Punctuation Problem 8.

**317. Setting Off Introductory Matter.** Words or word groups that would, if used parenthetically, be set off between commas are usually set off with a single comma when they introduce a sentence. It is especially desirable to set off introductory clauses and long introductory phrases.

Since these glasses prevent the penetration of certain light waves, they protect the eyes from glare.

By preventing the penetration of certain light waves, these glasses protect the eyes from glare.

Alas, nobody ever reads that kind of advertising.

If the introductory expression is a short phrase or an adverbial connective, it may be set off with a comma to represent a pause in speaking; but setting off is not always re-

quired. Thus, whether the comma should or should not be used at the points marked by the symbol (X) in the following sentences depends upon the taste of the writer:

By wearing these glasses (X) you will protect your eyes from glare.

Therefore (X) only two thirds of the class succeeded in graduating.

For the setting off of introductory matter, see Punctuation Problem 9.

**318. Setting Off Final Matter.** If a word of address or a lightly exclamatory expression is used at the end of a sentence, it should be set off with a comma.

I don't know where you could find a better one, ma'am.

It wasn't possible to find so good a one, alas.

As a rule, a final subordinate clause or a final phrase should not be set off with a comma.

These glasses protect the eyes from glare because they prevent the penetration of certain light waves.

These glasses protect the eyes from glare by preventing the penetration of certain light waves.

Note that final clauses introduced by *although* (or *though*) or by *as* or *since* in the sense of "because" should always be set off with a comma.

After that fall I was not of much value to the team, *though* I did manage to finish the game.

After that fall I was not of much value to the team, *since* I didn't dare put a strain upon my ankle.

For the comma required before *for* when used as a conjunction, see 304.

For the setting off of final matter, see Punctuation Problem 9.

**319. Punctuation of Appositives.** Nonessential appositives, whether or not introduced by *or*, should be set off

between commas. Essential appositives, however, should not be set off. For the distinction between essential and nonessential appositives, see 58. For the delayed appositive and its punctuation, see 59.

For the punctuation of appositives, see Punctuation Problem 10.

**320. Punctuation of Essential and Nonessential Modifiers.** Nonessential modifiers should be set off between commas. Essential modifiers, however, should not be set off. For the distinction between essential and nonessential modifiers, with examples of their punctuation, see 98.

For the punctuation of essential and nonessential modifiers, see Punctuation Problem 11.



## PUNCTUATION OF QUOTATIONS

### Use of Quotation Marks

**321. Double or Single Quotation Marks.** Double quotation marks (" ") are usually employed to inclose quoted material, and single quotation marks ( ' ') to inclose quotations within quotations. This usage, however, is sometimes reversed. Either system, if consistently employed, is acceptable.

"Ask Bobby to say 'It seems so,' and see how he lisps."

'Ask Bobby to say "It seems so," and see how he lisps.'

For the punctuation of quotations within quotations, see **334.**

**322. Quotation Marks Designating Speech.** One purpose of quotation marks is to show that the words inclosed within them are spoken words.

"Fancy that, now."

His constantly saying "Fancy that, now" irritated me.

If a speaker is represented as speaking successive sentences, one set of quotation marks incloses the whole passage.

"Who told me? What a question! Nobody told me: I guessed."

If a passage is made up of words spoken by different speakers, a set of quotation marks incloses the words of each separate speaker.

Everybody began shouting at once: "There he goes!" "Watch him!" "Head him off!" "Where is he?"

If a passage represents conversation between two or more speakers, a separate set of quotation marks is used and a

new paragraph is begun every time a different speaker begins.

"Did you bring it?" asked Cecil eagerly.

"Yes, but —"

"Then why don't you give it to me? I can't wait!"

If a single quotation extends over more than one paragraph, quotation marks are used at the beginning of each paragraph and at the end of the last one.

"It isn't much of a story," replied Major Collins, "but I don't mind telling it to you.

"Our company was camping on the Snake River. The Scouts had brought in disturbing reports. . . . So we never heard what their fate was.

"Yes, it's hard even for me to believe," he concluded quietly, "that such things could have happened in our own generation."

For quotation marks in direct discourse, see Punctuation Problems 14 and 15.

**323. Quotation Marks Designating Copied Matter.** If written matter is copied from some original source it is inclosed within quotation marks.

**Original source:** You will dress and report immediately. (Compare 203.)

**Copied material:** These were my orders: "You will dress and report immediately."

Copied material means material that is accurately copied, an exact reproduction. Thus, indirect discourse (76) is not inclosed within quotation marks because it does not reproduce the exact words of the original source.

**Incorrect:** My orders were "that I should dress and report immediately."

**Incorrect:** Why should he order me "to dress and report immediately"?

**Correct:** My orders were that I should dress and report immediately.

Even if some words of an original source are changed by being put into indirect discourse, however, it is permissible and sometimes desirable to inclose within quotation marks such words of the original as are accurately reproduced.

**Correct:** Why should he order me to "dress and report immediately"?

Universally familiar expressions, such as proverbs, should not be inclosed within quotation marks.

Our experience proved that too many cooks spoil the broth.  
There we lay, like a painted ship upon a painted ocean.

When copied material extends over more than one paragraph, quotation marks are used at the beginning of each paragraph and at the end of the last one (322).

For the use of quotation marks for designating copied matter, see Punctuation Problem 14.

**324. Quotation Marks Designating Unfamiliar Terms.** Quotation marks may be used to call attention to an unfamiliar technical term or to a familiar term used in a special sense.

No British vessel may legally be submerged below the "Plimsoll mark."

My worst fault was my tendency to "slice" the ball.

It should be noted, however, that if the technical term in question is presumably familiar to the reader, it should not be inclosed within quotation marks. Thus, the term *Plimsoll mark* would not be quoted in an article written for seamen, nor would *slice* be quoted in an article written for golf-players. For the same reason, a slang expression should be quoted only if the reader might not otherwise recognize it as slang. Thus, only a few readers would require help in understanding the following sentence:

It was not until his sophomore year that he found himself really "on the boat."

On the principle that labeling a joke is not complimentary to the reader, it is usually not desirable to emphasize with quotation marks an expression used self-consciously — for example, an ironical adjective.

**Undesirable:** I didn't appreciate his "complimentary" remarks.

**Undesirable:** Chapman had a "flair" for sporty ties.

For the use of quotation marks for designating unfamiliar terms, see Punctuation Problem 14.

**325. Quotation Marks Designating Book Titles, etc.** Quotation marks may be used to inclose titles of books, periodicals, plays, songs, etc. Italics, indicated in manuscript by underscoring, may also be used for the same purpose. Well-known titles are sometimes merely capitalized.

**Correct:** I had never even heard of "It Is Never Too Late to Mend."

**Correct:** You will find an article about it in this week's *Time*.

**Correct:** It was an old copy of Dante's *Divine Comedy*.

When two titles are used, one of them the title of an entire publication and the other the title of a subdivision, it is customary to italicize the former and to inclose the latter in quotation marks.

Did you notice the article on "Picturesque Devonshire" in last month's *National Geographic Magazine*?

In Conrad's *Tales of Hearsay* you will be especially interested in "The Black Mate."

For the use of quotation marks for designating book titles, etc., see Punctuation Problem 14.

**326. Quotation Marks Designating Words as Words.** When a word is introduced into a sentence, not in its normal function, but rather as a word under discussion, the fact that it is so used should be unmistakably signaled to the reader. Either quotation marks or italics (indicated in

manuscript by underscoring) accomplish this purpose. The same rule applies also, of course, to word groups.

**Incorrect:** Which is the object in the clause which you see.

**Correct:** "Which" is the object in the clause "which you see."

**Correct:** *Which* is the object in the clause *which you see*.

For the use of quotation marks for designating words as words, see Punctuation Problem 14.

**327. Indicating Omissions from Quoted Matter.** On two conditions it is permissible to omit from a quotation a word or a word group contained in the original source: (1) the omission must not change the sense of the original, and (2) the point at which the omission occurs must be marked by a short row of periods.

**Original source:** One reason why the author writes well of boys is that he knows boys well. He is a boy's man. He champions the under dog, not through sentiment, but because he has so often seen the man who thought he couldn't win crash through and come out triumphant.

**Correct:** "One reason why the author writes well of boys is that he knows boys well. . . . He champions the under dog . . . because he has so often seen the man who thought he couldn't win crash through and come out triumphant."

**Incorrect:** "One reason why the author writes well of boys is that he knows boys well. He champions the under dog . . . through sentiment."

Sometimes a writer has to add a word or word group to a quoted sentence in order to make clear a reference to material that is not being quoted. It is legitimate to do this if the addition is inclosed in brackets (315). Here, for example, is an original passage of two sentences:

Some careful studies have been made to find out how much energy the earth receives from the sun. It is believed that the amount is equivalent to more than 200,000,000 horse power for each inhabitant of the earth.

Here is the second of these sentences quoted, with an addition that is necessary to make clear its meaning:

"It is believed that the amount [of energy from the sun] is equivalent to more than 200,000,000 horse power for each inhabitant of the earth."

### **Punctuation Accompanying Quotation Marks**

**328. Punctuation of Quotation and of Sentence.** The correct use of punctuation marks (periods, commas, etc.) in sentences that include quoted matter involves three problems: (1) What marks are called for by the quoted matter? (2) What marks are called for by the sentence containing the quotation? (3) What adjustment should be made between marks called for (a) by the quotation and (b) by the sentence?

Marks called for by the quoted matter stand normally within the quotation marks.

"Have you got the bait?"

His constantly asking "Have you got the bait?" got on my nerves.

Marks called for by the sentence containing the quotation stand normally outside the quotation marks.

Do you know the meaning of "Plimsoll mark"?

The following sections deal with the adjustments that are sometimes necessary between punctuation marks called for by the quotation and those called for by the sentence containing the quotation.

For punctuation within and without quotation marks, see Punctuation Problem 16.

**329. When Punctuation of Quotation is Adjusted.** Terminal punctuation called for by a quotation may be either omitted or changed.

A period (but not a question mark or exclamation point) is omitted from a quotation embedded within a sentence.

"I beg your pardon."

The way in which he said "I beg your pardon" showed that he was English.

"Are you, really?"

The way in which he said "Are you, really?" showed that he was English.

A period (but not a question mark or exclamation point) terminating a quotation followed by *he said* or its equivalent is changed to a comma.

"I beg your pardon."

"I beg your pardon," he murmured.

"Are you, really?"

"Are you, really?" she asked excitedly.

For the adjustment of punctuation marks in broken quotation, see 332.

For the punctuation of a quotation introducing a sentence, see Punctuation Problem 17.

For the adjustment of punctuation marks in quotations, see Punctuation Problem 16.

**330. When Punctuation of Sentence is Shifted.** In American usage a comma or a period that logically (because it belongs to the sentence) follows immediately after quotation marks is placed just before final quotation marks.

In the following sentences the punctuation is logical. It is in accordance with British usage and is preferred by some American writers. The wide gap between *war* and the following punctuation mark will be noted.

Believing that this was a "war to end war", the people gave it their support.

Everybody believed that this was a "war to end war".

In the following sentences the punctuation is illogical, but is usually preferred in America because of its relatively neat appearance.

Believing that this was a "war to end war," the people gave it their support.

Everybody believed that this was a "war to end war."

For the application of this principle to broken quotation, see 332.

For the shifting of punctuation marks in quotations, see Punctuation Problem 16.

**331. When Double Punctuation is Simplified.** When it would be logical to have a sentence end with two terminal marks, one for the quotation and the other for the sentence, usage demands that the punctuation be simplified.

If both terminal marks are of the same kind, the second is omitted.

**Incorrect:** How do the French say "What time is it?"?

**Correct:** How do the French say "What time is it?"

If the period logically accompanies another terminal mark, the period is omitted.

**Incorrect:** I want to know the French for "What time is it?".

**Correct:** I want to know the French for "What time is it?"

**Incorrect:** How do the French say "It is ten o'clock."?

**Correct:** How do the French say "It is ten o'clock"?

If, however, a question mark logically follows an exclamation point, or *vice versa*, both terminal marks should be used.

**Correct:** What a queer way of saying "What time is it?"!

For the simplification of terminal punctuation of quotations, see Punctuation Problem 18.

**332. Broken Quotation.** When a quoted sentence is interrupted for the insertion of *he said* or an equivalent ex-



pression, *Broken Quotation* results. The term may also be used, for convenience, when the interrupting words are inserted between two consecutive sentences. The best way of determining the correct punctuation of any given example is to write, first, the quotation without the interruption, and then to note the changes that must be made when the interrupting words are inserted. Several problems arise:

When the interruption comes at a point that does not require punctuation, commas precede and follow the interrupting words.

"But my remark ^ was not intended as an insult."

"But my remark," expostulated Roger, "was not intended as an insult."

When the interruption comes where a comma is required, commas precede and follow the interrupting words.

If that is the case ^, the incident is forgotten."

"If that is the case," I answered, "the incident is forgotten."

When the interruption comes where a semicolon or a colon is required, a comma precedes it and the semicolon or colon follows it. Note that the interrupting expression is attached to the first part of the divided quotation, not to the second.

"You must give your promise first ^ ; otherwise I cannot tell you."

"You must give your promise first," he insisted ; "otherwise I cannot tell you."

When the interruption comes where a period is required, a comma precedes it and the period follows it.

"Take a chair ^. I'm really delighted to see you."

"Take a chair," he said genially. "I'm really delighted to see you."

When the interruption comes where a question mark or an exclamation point is required, that terminal mark is retained, and a period follows the interrupting expression (329).

"What shall we do?^ There's not a garage within six miles."

"What shall we do?" she wailed. "There's not a garage within six miles."

"Brace up!^ We'll find a way out yet."

"Brace up!" returned Frank cheerfully. "We'll find a way out yet."

For the punctuation of broken quotation, see Punctuation Problem 19.

**333. The Comma Fault in Broken Quotation.** When an interrupting expression comes where a semicolon or a colon is required, that semicolon or colon must be inserted before the quotation is resumed. The substitution of a comma constitutes a comma fault (293).

**Correct:** "You must give your promise first; otherwise I cannot tell you."

**Comma fault:** "You must give your promise first, otherwise I cannot tell you."

**Comma fault:** "You must give your promise first," he insisted, "otherwise I cannot tell you."

When an interrupting expression comes where terminal punctuation is required, a period must be inserted before the quotation is resumed. The substitution of a comma constitutes a comma fault (293).

**Correct:** "Take a chair. I'm really delighted to see you."

**Comma fault:** "Take a chair, I'm really delighted to see you."

**Comma fault:** "Take a chair," he said genially, "I'm really delighted to see you."

**Comma fault:** "Brace up!" returned Frank genially, "we'll find a way out yet."

For the comma fault in broken quotation, see Punctuation Problem 19.

**334. Quotation within Quotation.** If a quotation is introduced into a sentence that is itself inclosed within double quotation marks, single quotation marks are used for the inserted quotation.

“Why did Anthony keep referring to his opponents as ‘honorable men’?”

If, however, single quotation marks inclose the entire sentence, double quotation marks are used for the inserted quotation.

‘Why did Anthony keep referring to his opponents as “honorable men”?’

When the punctuation of the inserted quotation has to be adjusted to that of the entire sentence, the rules to be followed are those that have already been explained (329–330).

In the following example, there is no period after the inserted quotation:

“The way in which he said ‘I beg your pardon’ showed that he was English.”

In the following examples, one terminal mark is used, although two would be logical (331):

“How do the French say ‘What time is it?’”

“I want to know the French for ‘What time is it?’”

In the following example, two terminal marks are used, one for the inserted quotation, the other for the entire sentence (328):

“What a queer way of saying ‘What time is it?!’”

For the punctuation of quotations within quotations, see Punctuation Problem 20.

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 281-334

## QUESTIONS TO ANSWER

1. Of the following exclamatory sentences, which are exclamatory in both form and intent, and which only in intent? *How swift the current is! My, but it is swift! Isn't its speed terrific! What a swift current it is!*

2. State whether a choice of terminal-punctuation marks would be possible after *You don't say so*; after *You really mean it*.

3. If the sentence *Did you ever hear of such arrogance* is accented on the word *you*, what would its appropriate terminal punctuation be? If it is accented on the word *hear*?

4. Should the terminal punctuation of *Do you think that I should risk it* and of *He asked me whether he should risk it* be the same? Why?

5. The following sentence is punctuated correctly, but not very effectively: *See how muddy your coat is, and your shoes, and your hat!* How could it be punctuated so as to gain in effectiveness?

6. The period fault is here illustrated: *I learned this from my next-door neighbor. A retired British colonel from India.* The following sentences are correctly punctuated: *I learned this from my next-door neighbor. A retired British colonel from India told it to him.* By use of these examples, show one practical reason for avoiding the period fault.

7. Is there justification for using terminal punctuation after the following word groups? *I'll be there in a minute. Just a few seconds more now. There: all done.*

8. Finish the sentence *I took along a crosscut saw and*, in two different ways, so that *and* (1) joins words, and (2) joins principal clauses. How should each sentence be punctuated?

9. Is there a reason for altering any mark of punctuation in the following sentence? *I assumed, of course, that Jerry, who had proposed the call, had the address, but he hadn't.*

10. Why is the comma in one of the following sentences correct, and that in the other incorrect? *Howard couldn't go, his dress coat was at the tailor's. Howard couldn't go, his dress coat being at the tailor's.*

11. In the following sentence, what punctuation mark should be substituted for the comma? *Why does he come so soon, I didn't expect him until next week.*

12. Using the clauses *the next day was foggy* and *the race had to be postponed*, construct a sentence in which a semicolon is the correct separating mark, and another in which a comma is correct.

13. How may the comma fault in the following sentence be corrected by the change of a single word? *We finally arrived at the pier, there we found the others waiting.*

14. How should the following sentence be punctuated if the blank is filled (1) by *this*? (2) if it is filled by *which*? *I could now begin the study of law ----- really interested me.*

15. Why should the first of the following sentences be punctuated with a comma, and the second with a semicolon? *His ankle pained him excessively, but he insisted on playing the match through. His ankle pained him excessively; nevertheless he insisted on playing the match through.*

16. The first of the following sentences is compound. Is the second? *The next year his father failed in business; consequently Ted had to leave college. Since his father had failed in business, Ted had to leave college.*

17. Should both the following sentences be punctuated alike? Why? *My car had just been overhauled therefore I wasn't expecting trouble. My car had just been overhauled and therefore I wasn't expecting trouble.*

18. In the following sentence, what principle justifies the use of a comma before *then*? *If the angle a is greater than a right angle, then the angle b must be less than a right angle.*

19. What punctuation should separate the following clauses? Why? *Marion was still too ill to move so we delayed our return for another week.*

20. Why may the first of the following sentences be punctuated appropriately with a semicolon and the second with a colon? *Nobody called on her; she felt more and more lonely. Nobody called on her: everybody seemed to avoid meeting her.*

21. Should both the following sentences be punctuated alike? Why? *Mother's one question was Would it last Mother's one question was whether it would last*

22. How may the following sentence be changed so that the enumeration becomes formal? What change in punctuation would then be required? *The thief took a diamond ring, an emerald pendant, and two diamond stickpins.*

23. If the sentence standing just above is changed so as to read *The thief took all the jewelry that was in the box namely a diamond ring an emerald pendant and two diamond stickpins*, how should it then be punctuated?

24. How may the punctuation of the following passage be criticized on the score of logic? *In estimating the expense, you will have to ask, What is the first cost of the car? What is its yearly depreciation? What is the cost of upkeep?*

25. Why would a change in punctuation improve the following sentence? *The boys never tired of playing one o'cat, fox and geese, hockey and tag.*

26. Construct two sentences beginning with *Above the trail*, in each of which the word *above* is a different part of speech. How may punctuation be used to differentiate the two?

27. If the following sentence is to be made more compact by the omission of the second *brought*, how should the sentence be punctuated? *Most of the neighbors brought cut flowers, but a few brought potted plants.*

28. Why is the comma appropriate in one of the following sentences but not in the other? *Whatever he does, keep your temper. Whatever he does is always done clumsily.*

29. In what different ways should the following sentences be punctuated? *I didn't want to ask him directly Who are you I didn't want to ask him directly who he was*

30. What principle of punctuation is violated in the following sentence? *His hard, self-satisfied, insulting, manner quite disgusted me.*

31. Why should the punctuation of the following sentence be changed? *In this salad dressing, garlic should be used, (if it is used at all), sparingly.*

32. If the exclamation *That's the way she spelled it!* is to be inserted after the word *except* in the following sentence, how should the sentence be written? *She wrote that she could not except my invitation.*

33. Why is one of the following sentences well punctuated, and the other badly punctuated? *Hollis we all thought, deserved the chairmanship.* *Hollis, we all thought, deserved the chairmanship.*

34. If the second of the following sentences is to be inserted in the first, how should the enlarged sentence be punctuated? *Professor Hocking would certainly be interested to hear about it.* *You'll find his address in Who's Who.*

35. Should a change be made in the punctuation of one or both of the following sentences? *How, in your judgment, will he take it?* *How, do you think, he will take it?*

36. If the order of clauses in the following sentence should be reversed, should a comma separate them? *Before it is served, chill it in the ice box.*

37. Should each of the following sentences be punctuated without a comma? *She accepted our judgment when she was convinced we were right.* *She accepted our judgment though she was not convinced we were right.*

38. Complete the following sentence in two ways, by supplying (1) an antecedent that shall cause the relative clause to be essential, and (2) an antecedent that shall cause the relative clause to be nonessential: ----- *who came in second is to receive a silver medal.*

39. How may the following sentences be shown to be the words (1) of one speaker? (2) of three speakers? *I think he's going to make it. I'm not so sure, though. He did — thank heaven!*

40. Why is not a quotation extending over more than one paragraph punctuated at the end, as well as at the beginning, of each paragraph?

41. If the sentence "*Come to me whenever you need a boost*" is put in indirect discourse after *He told me*, what part of the quoted sentence might appropriately be inclosed within quotation marks?

42. Under what circumstances would a writer be justified in inclosing the expression *touchback* in quotation marks? Under what circumstances would quotation marks be inappropriate?

43. In what ways could a writer show that the word *Hamlet* refers to the play, and not to the character in the play?

44. By what device of punctuation might the title *The New Yorker* be shown to be the title of a story in a magazine and not the name of the magazine itself?

45. Make clearer by punctuation the following sentence: *I did not know that that that was a relative pronoun.*

46. Why are brackets rather than parentheses used in the following sentence? "This report [on Indian lands] will soon be ready for distribution."

47. In the following sentence, what would be the justification for putting the comma required after *seeded* within the marks of quotation? after the marks of quotation? *When writers on tennis speak of players as being "seeded" what do they mean?*

48. What is the terminal punctuation that would be logically appropriate in the following sentence, and how does it differ from that which is required by custom? *Who was it that wrote, "What's in a name"*

49. "All that know him like him; but then, why shouldn't they?" If the foregoing quotation were interrupted for the insertion of *she wrote* after *know him*, what punctuation marks would be used before and after the inserted words? What would they be if the inserted words followed *like him*?

50. "I don't find it dull," she replied "on the contrary, it interests me greatly." Would a writer be justified in following *replied* with a comma? a semicolon? a period?

51. In the following sentence, what terminal punctuation would be logical, and what is actually required by custom? "All that he answered was, 'Don't you wish you knew'"

52. What marks of punctuation and of quotation should be used at the end of the following sentence, and in what order should they come? "Why did he suddenly shout, 'Hurrah



## SENTENCES TO PUNCTUATE

Supply appropriate punctuation marks, capital letters, apostrophes, and hyphens. (Sometimes, of course, more than one usage may be justified.)

1. The high notes are sometimes shrill otherwise the tone is very lifelike

2. Have you lost anything I asked feeling sorry for the poor old chap

3. Try it at least he urged it may do you good you know

4. Byrd himself who had commanded the expedition made the opening talk

5. They write here of seeding the draw but I don't know what they mean

6. A brisker more up to date little old lady you never saw

7. When I reached New Orleans I was born there you know things began to happen

8. What a night may I never have to spend another like it

9. With such a team coached by our peerless dan reynolds cheers what is there ahead but victory loud cheers

10. Why she asked wearily does he insist on calling Lester whats his name

11. Id suggest two things bring warm clothing old of course and see that your boots are well broken in

12. Coffee made in this way is clear not too strong deliciously fragrant

13. There was not a drop left in his fountain pen he was in a quandary

14. The letter was somehow well to tell the truth Duke forgot to mail it

15. Come on he yelled pile into the car that is if you want to see anything

16. I didnt know at the time that it was my Uncle Harry who had put Stallings his college roommate in nomination

17. Come right in she exclaimed happily whoever would have expected to see you here

18. If you have any large fresh unwashed eggs suitable for preserving set them aside for me

19. The question that kept worrying me was what should we do with him if we went traveling

20. Rain or shine his car if car it may be called stood in the street in front of his house

21. Do you know asked Mr Grant suddenly where I can find Stevensons essay entitled on style in literature

22. We worked hard all that afternoon so that by six oclock the spar was ready for varnishing

23. They hurled questions at me did you see it when did it happen is she hurt whose fault was it

24. You will find Disraelis life Maurois has written the best account of it a most fascinating study

25. Nobody suspected the real culprit everybody was looking further afield

26. The ones who had studied most were it seems the least prepared for such an examination

27. As to who had told the boys were as mystified as was I myself

28. Father wanted to buy a ford and mother preferred an austin so in the end they bought one of each

29. How awful exclaimed Aunt Jane Id have died myself of fright

30. Is that word deceptive or deception I can't make out from his handwriting

31. The things very simple he wanted it therefore he took it

32. Hes no gentleman not what I should call a gentleman at any rate

33. I ended by taking some and my headache sure enough was relieved almost instantly

34. This time we carried the following equipment a set of skid-chains a towrope an ax and a shovel

35. He quickly became enthusiastic over golf in fact he was soon talking of nothing else

36. With everything in the car we were ready to start as soon as word should come from Mr Slevin

37. The letter went on I didnt see it good sic so I cant describe it exactly

38. What did I tell you growled Chester a lot you know about salvaging a car

39. I was alas so green that I thought that he would take me into the firm just because I was in his sons fraternity

40. What does he mean interrupted the manager by ending his letter with yours for service

41. That morning the alarm clock it was one of the cheap kind that you pick up at the drug store failed to work

42. When do you suppose we shall reach a station where I can buy a New York newspaper

43. How should he know he has never been out of his own state

44. I was so advised by Mr Griscom a banker but one who knows as much about mortgages as any lawyer

45. Why should you come to me he asked with surprise I have nothing to do with that you know

46. These three suggestions may prove helpful make out a daily program of work stick to that program dont be afraid to ask questions

47. You have I think hit upon an original problem in fact nobody that I know of has done any work on it

48. The solution is then set aside and allowed to cool but its temperature should not go below that of blood heat

49. Did you notice when he said hypocrite how queerly he looked at me

50. His breakfast consisting of fruit ham and eggs toast and coffee he always took in his own room

51. My Uncle Henry and Mr Wilkins his brother in law wrote letters for me though they hadnt seen me in years

52. With a shout of all together now boys the coxswain called for a spurt and we all put our backs into it

53. Those were the Friday afternoons when I used to electrify my audience by reciting hail to the chief

54. In college I always felt myself a sort of never mind Im going to forget all that

55. Her mothers only sister for whom she was named paid and paid generously for her education

56. Come at once the letter went on we are all especially the children dying to see you

57. Only a few I learned had come in contact with the mean grasping cruel side of his nature

58. No I havent seen the play since last week when it was being given I was ill

59. Hes not really stupid hes only how shall I express it pre-occupied

60. How dare you she interrupted I allow nobody Id have you know to talk to me like that

# Rhetorical Material

## RHETORICAL STANDARDS

**335. What Rhetoric Is.** Rhetoric has been defined as the science of effectiveness in the use of language. Since a sentence may be grammatically correct without being effective, problems of rhetoric usually begin where problems of grammar end. There are, however, border-line cases in which it is not profitable to draw an absolute line of demarcation between grammatical and rhetorical issues.

Effectiveness may be studied in its application to each of the units of discourse — the word, the sentence, the paragraph, and the whole composition. In the discussion that follows two units are considered: (1) the word (or the word group functioning as a word) and (2) the sentence.

**336. Standards of Rhetoric.** The effectiveness of a word or of a sentence depends often upon the circumstances under which it is used. For this reason it is useful to consider separately three sets of circumstances, in each of which standards of effectiveness are different.

When principles of rhetoric are discussed, it is usually assumed that they apply to *Formal Writing*. This is the writing that is presumably addressed to the general public or to some person with whom the writer is not on intimate personal terms. Under such circumstances, obviously, the appropriate standard is that which is set by cultivated writers in their own formal writing.

*Informal Writing*, by contrast, is addressed, if not actually to an intimate friend, as in some letters, to readers with whom some intimacy of relationship is assumed, as

## Rhetorical Material

in certain chatty essays. Under these circumstances the appropriate standard of rhetoric is that which is set by the informal personal talk of cultivated speakers.

Another kind of writing may be called *Low Colloquial* writing. One uses this when one is deliberately imitating, as a writer of dialect stories does, the speech of uncultivated people. The appropriate standard of rhetoric under these circumstances, of course, is that which is set by the people being represented.

In the discussion that follows, the principles of rhetoric set forth are, unless the contrary is expressly stated, those which should be applied in formal writing. In writing of other kinds, the standards should of course be modified according to circumstances.

## GOOD DICTION

**337. The Dictionary as a Guide to Usage.** The dictionary is a useful, often an indispensable, guide in matters of diction. Since, however, its authority is sometimes misinterpreted, it is well for the writer to understand what the dictionary does, and what it does not, profess to do.

The dictionary lists the words of the language. It gives the spellings and the pronunciations that are, according to its observation, preferred by the majority of cultivated people. When the usage of such people is divided, a choice of spellings or of pronunciations is given. When a word or some sense of a word is limited in use, the dictionary makes note of the fact. Thus, archaic or obsolete words are marked with special signs. Again, a word that is in local but not in general use may be marked *Dialectal*; a word that implies a lack of education or of manners may be marked *Vulgar*; and a word that is not appropriate in formal speech or writing may be marked *Colloquial*. It is sometimes, however, difficult, if not impossible, to say that a word belongs exclusively to one of these classes.

The dictionary aims, further, to list all the senses in which a given word may be used at the present time, so that a reader may find an explanation of any use that he is likely to meet with in his current reading. For this very reason the dictionary is of limited service as a guide to the best diction. Though it labels words that are clearly dialectal, vulgar, or obsolete, it does not profess to distinguish, in all cases, between permissible uses and desirable uses. Permissible uses, however, are not always desirable. The fact that a word is in the dictionary, then, does not of itself

justify its use under all circumstances: a writer must often trust to his experience and to such help as discussions of rhetoric afford.

**338. Vulgarisms.** There are certain words, some of which are called *Vulgarisms*, that are not used by careful writers unless in imitation of the usage of uncultivated people. Typical examples follow: *ain't*, *anywheres* (for *anywhere*), *being as*, *boughten*, *burgle*, *complected* (for *complexioned*), *concertize*, *disremember*, *enthuse*, *evolute* (for *evolve*), *illy*, *nowheres* (for *nowhere*), *overly*, *somewheres* (for *somewhere*), *thusly*, *tote*, *unbeknown*, *vacationize*, *ways* (for *way*).

For examples of vulgarisms in sentences, see Rhetorical Problem 1.

**339. Provincialisms.** Certain words that are reputable when used in certain senses indicate ignorance of good standards when they are used, simply or in combination, in certain other senses. Some of these usages are known as *Provincialisms*. A typical list of them follows: *allow* (for *declare*), *any place* (for *anywhere*), *calculate* (for *think*, *expect*), *get to go* (for *be able to go*), *hear to it* (for *consent to it*), *learn* (for *teach*), *no place* (for *nowhere*), *pack* (for *carry*), *party* (for *person*), *piano* (for *piano lessons*), *piece* (for *short distance*), *reckon* (for *think*), *right smart* (for *very*, *considerable*), *some place* (for *somewhere*), *spell* (for *short time*), *vocal* or *voice* (for *singing lessons*), *want in*, *out*, etc. (for *want to go in*, *out*, etc.), *you all* (for *you*).

For examples of provincialisms in sentences, see Rhetorical Problem 1.

**340. Colloquialisms.** Many words that may be acceptable in the easy, careless speech of informal intercourse are distinctly inappropriate in formal speech or writing. Slang expressions belong to this class, as well as words that fall under a larger heading, *Colloquialisms*. A person who uses such expressions should be conscious of their nature, so



that he can avoid them when the occasion makes their use inappropriate. The few examples that follow will suggest many others that might be chosen: *business* (for *right*), *comfy* (for *comfortable*), *date* (for *appointment*), *deal* (for *transaction*), *diner* (for *dining car*), *every which way* (for *in every direction*), *fix* or *fix up* (for *mend, get even with, arrange*), *get up* (for *organize*), *guess* (for *think*), *help* (for *servants or employees*), *homy* or *homey* (for *homelike*), *inside of* (for *within*, as in *I shall return inside of a week*), *just* (as in *The day was just perfect*), *lots of* (for *much, many*), *nowhere near* (for *not nearly*), *quite* (for *rather, somewhat*), *quite a few* (for *a considerable number*), *run* (for *conduct, manage*), *show* (for *entertainment*), *show up* (for *appear, expose*), *size up* (for *estimate*), *stand for* (for *endure*), *take in* (for *attend, deceive*).

For examples of colloquialisms in sentences, see Rhetorical Problem 1.

**341. Unidiomatic Expression.** An idiom is an expression peculiar to a language. The usage of cultivated speakers and writers determines which of two ways of expressing an idea is to be considered correct. In the following list are some typical examples of desirable usage (contrasted with undesirable forms) illustrated in sentences:

**All-round** (not *all-around*): He is an *all-round* athlete.

**Aloud** (not *out loud*): Do you like to read *aloud*?

**As far as** (not *all the farther*): This is *as far as* I can go.

**Beg leave to** (not *beg to*): I *beg leave to* differ.

**Blame . . . for it** (not *blame it on*): Don't *blame* me *for it*.

**Connect** (not *connect up*): Your telephone will be *connected* soon.

**Doubt that** (not *doubt but what*): I don't *doubt that* it is.

**Enough . . . for . . . to** (not *enough . . . so that*): There isn't *enough* string *for me to* tie the package securely.

**Etc.** (not *and etc.*): He sells hardware — tools, nails, *etc.*

**Feel** (not *feel of*): *Feel* this fur.

**Kind of** (not *kind of a*): He was a queer *kind of* fellow.

**Meet** (not *meet up with*): Yesterday I *met* Smith again.

**Off** (not *off of*): It fell *off* the table.

**Privilege of doing** (not *privilege to do*): I had the *privilege of meeting* her.

**Provided** (not *providing*): I will come, *provided* it doesn't rain.

**Rarely** (not *rarely ever*): We *rarely* see you these days.

**Remember** (not *remember of*): I don't *remember* meeting him.

**Seem unable** (not *can't seem*): I *seem unable* to catch the tune.

**Seldom or never or seldom if ever** (not *seldom or ever*): I *seldom if ever* meet him.

**Sized** (not *size*): He held a handful of different-*sized* nails.

**Try to** (not *try and*): *Try to* throw the anchor far out.

**Where** (not *where . . . at*): Do you know *where* we are?

**Win** (not *win out*): In the high jump Tyler *won* easily.

For examples of unidiomatic expressions in sentences, see Rhetorical Problem 2.

**342. Idiomatic Prepositions.** When a word is to be followed by a prepositional phrase, the preposition to be used is sometimes open to choice. Thus, one can speak of frowning *at* or *upon* something, or of laying hold *of* or *on* something. Good usage requires, however, that certain words shall be followed by certain prepositions, and not by others. In a case of doubt the dictionary will sometimes tell which preposition should be used. A list of examples of accepted usage, with correct sentences illustrative of them, follows:

**Acquiesce in** (not *to*): He *acquiesced in* my decision.

**Ambitious of** (not *for*): He was *ambitious of* success.

**Authority on** (not *about*): He is an *authority on* conifers.

**Averse to** (not *from*): Are you *averse to* capital punishment?

**Buy of or from** (not *off*): I *bought* that horse *of* Mr. Smith.

**Collide with** (not *against*): My car *collided with* his.]

**Desirous of** (not *for*): He was *desirous of* fame.

**Disdain for** (not *at*): He has *disdain for* all yachtsmen.

**Dissent from** (not *to*): Why do you *dissent from* my views?

**Identical with** (not *to*): This is *identical with* that.

**In search of** (not *for*): They went *in search of* pearls.

**Independent of** (not *from*): He is now *independent of* his father.

**Monopoly of** (not *on*): They have a *monopoly of* the silk trade.

**Oblivious of** (not *to*): He was *oblivious of* danger.

**Treat of** (not *on*): The book *treats of* tropical diseases.

For choice of idiomatic prepositions, see Rhetorical Problem 3.

**343. Idiomatic Prepositions Discriminated.** In the case of certain words, one preposition is idiomatic under some circumstances, another under other circumstances. Examples of correct usage, with illustrative sentences, follow:

**Agree** { **on** (something worked out in common) : We couldn't agree *on* the itinerary to be followed.  
**to** something proposed by another: Taylor *agreed to* my suggestion.

**Angry** { **at** (a thing) : Don't be *angry at* the machine.  
**with** (a person) : Don't be *angry with* me.

**Compare** { **to** (something dissimilar) : He *compared* me *to* an ox.  
**with** (another similar one) : He *compared* his *with* mine.

**Consist** { **of** (parts) : It *consists of* four houses and a store.  
**in** (an equivalent) : His whole duty *consists in* obedience.

**Differ** { **from** (something else) : How does neon *differ from* argon?  
**with** (a person in opinion) : In that I must *differ with* you.

**Entertained** { **by** (a person) : We were *entertained by* a juggler.  
**with** (a thing) : We were *entertained with* charades.

**Familiar** { or well known, **to** : The subway crowds are *familiar to* him.  
or well acquainted, **with** : I am *familiar with* his son.

**Impatient** { **at** (conduct) : Are you *impatient at* my slowness?  
**of** (restraint) : He was always *impatient of* rules.  
**with** (a person) : Everyone was *impatient with* her.

- Part** { **from** (a person): I *parted from* the others in Naples.  
           { **with** (a thing): I won't *part with* my horse at any price.
- Reconcile** { **to** (something undesirable): Are you *reconciled to* his going?  
               { **with** (an opposing person or thing): I am not yet *reconciled with* Spencer. This view cannot be *reconciled with* that.
- Vexed** { **at** (a thing): I was thoroughly *vexed at* his clumsiness.  
           { **with** (a person): Why are you *vexed with* him?
- Wait** { **for** (a person or thing expected): I shall *wait for* you at the box-office.  
           { **on** (a person served): Sit here, and let me *wait on* you.

For choice of idiomatic prepositions, see Rhetorical Problem 3.

**344. Incorrect Part of Speech.** Many word forms, as has been seen (29), can be used in one sentence as one part of speech and in another sentence as another part of speech. In not every case, however, is a shift in the part of speech approved by good usage. Careful writers who will use a given form as one part of speech will avoid using it as another part of speech. A list of such words or expressions, with examples of desirable and of undesirable use, follows:

Nouns not to be used as verbs: *suicide, suspicion, vacation*.

**Desirable:** It looked like a case of *suicide*.

**Undesirable:** It looked as if he had *suicided*.

**Desirable:** Nobody had any *suspicion* that I had done it.

**Undesirable:** Nobody *suspicioned* that I had done it.

**Desirable:** We always spend our *vacation* in the mountains.

**Undesirable:** We always *vacation* in the mountains.

Noun not to be used as adjective or adverb: *plenty*.

**Desirable:** There will be *plenty* of room for us all.

**Undesirable:** There will be *plenty* room for us all.

**Undesirable:** The house is *plenty* large for us all.

Expressions not to be used as adverbs: *kind of, sort of.*

**Desirable:** This is a much better *kind of* head-lamp.

**Undesirable:** He was feeling *kind of* tired.

**Undesirable:** It *sort of* made me ill.

Verbs not to be used as nouns: *combine, defy, invite.*

**Desirable:** My rivals *combined* to ruin me.

**Undesirable:** I was ruined by a *combine* of my rivals.

**Desirable:** In his letter he *defied* his accusers.

**Undesirable:** His letter to his accusers was a *defy*.

**Desirable:** They *invited* only intimate friends.

**Undesirable:** Only intimate friends received *invites*.

Adjectives not to be used as nouns: *canine, human.*

**Desirable:** He was the most faithful of the *canine* race.

**Undesirable:** He was the most faithful *canine* I ever owned.

**Desirable:** This disease never attacks *human* beings.

**Undesirable:** This disease never attacks *humans*.

Adjective not to be used as preposition: *due (to).*

**Desirable:** His rapid rise was *due to* his native brilliancy.

**Undesirable:** He rose rapidly, *due to* his native brilliancy.

(Note that there is in the first sentence a noun, *rise*, which is modified by *due*. There being no noun in the second sentence for *due* to modify, the sentence should be changed; *because of* might be substituted.)

Pronominal adjective not to be used as adverb: *that.*

**Desirable:** *That* feeling of lassitude puzzled me.

**Undesirable:** I was *that* tired I could hardly stand.

Adverb not to be used as adjective or noun: *above.*

**Desirable:** Have you read the paragraph [that is] *above*?

**Undesirable:** Have you read the *above* paragraph?

**Undesirable:** Have you read the *above*?

Prepositions not to be used as conjunctions: *like, without.*

**Desirable:** Stand firm, *like* me.

**Undesirable:** Stand firm, *like* [use *as*] I do.

**Desirable:** He walked *like* a tired man.

**Undesirable:** He walked *like* [use *as if*] he were tired.

**Desirable:** You shall not go *without* me.

**Undesirable:** You shall not go *without* [use *unless*] I go too.

Conjunction not to be used as preposition: *than*.

**Desirable:** You are not very much taller *than* I [am].

**Undesirable:** You are not very much taller *than* me.

(Note that *than whom* is sometimes used by reputable writers.)

For examples of words used as the wrong parts of speech, see Rhetorical Problem 4.

**345. Pairs of Words Sometimes Confused.** Because of their resemblances of form, pairs of words having different meanings are sometimes confused. A list of these pairs, with illustrative sentences, follows. The meanings given are not necessarily the only ones that the words have.

**Accept** (to receive): He *accepted* my offer.

**Except** (to exclude): His name must be *excepted* from the list.

**Affect** (to influence): Late hours *affected* his health.

**Effect** (to accomplish): This treatment *effected* a cure.

**All ready** (completely ready): By noon I was *all ready* to go.

**Already** (by this time): The bus had *already* left.

(Note that *all right* should always be written as two words.)

**All together** (in a group): We were *all together* on the pier.

**Altogether** (in every way): You are *altogether* mistaken.

**Allusion** (indirect reference): They made no *allusion* to my illness.

**Illusion** (deceptive appearance): The mirage is an optical *illusion*.

**Avenge** (to exact punishment for injury): How shall you *avenge* that insult?

**Revenge** (to inflict injury in resentment): The law forbids you to *revenge* yourself on him.

**Beside** (by the side of): I sat *beside* the host.

**Besides** (in addition to): There were five there *besides* the host.

**Complement** (that which completes): The *complement* of an angle of sixty degrees is one of thirty degrees.

**Compliment** (courteous praise): He paid my costume a *compliment*.

**Contemptible** (deserving contempt): He took a *contemptible* revenge.

**Contemptuous** (showing contempt): He gave the man a *contemptuous* stare.

**Continual** (in close succession): The *continual* ringing of the telephone bell irritated him.

**Continuous** (without interruption): We had *continuous* rain for three days.

**Credible** (believable): He told us a strange but *credible* story.

**Credulous** (too ready to believe): Are you so *credulous* as to believe that?

**Definite** (exact): He has left *definite* instructions for you.

**Definitive** (finally decisive): His refusal to subscribe was *definitive*.

**Disinterested** (impartial): He gave me a *disinterested* opinion.

**Uninterested** (without interest): I was an *uninterested* spectator of the game.

**Emigrant** (one going out of a country): Forty *emigrants* leave today.

**Immigrant** (one coming into a country): Forty *immigrants* arrive today.

**Farther** (usually of distance): He can swim *farther* than I can.

**Further** (additionally): We shall talk of it *further* tonight.

**Healthful** (promoting health): The place has a *healthful* climate.

**Healthy** (possessing health): All the children there are *healthy*.

**Last** (at the end of all): His *last* book was left unfinished.

**Latest** (most recent): His *latest* book was unsuccessful.

**Liable** (having unpleasant responsibility): You are *liable* to a heavy fine for that.

**Likely** (having mere probability): I shall be *likely* to meet him at the Exchange today.

**Luxuriant** (abundant): The vegetation was *luxuriant*.

**Luxurious** (distinguished by luxury): He lived in *luxurious* ease.

**Observance** (heeding of custom or duty): He was interested in all their religious *observances*.

**Observation** (act of looking attentively): He learned all he knew of insects by *observation*.

**Practicable** (capable of successful accomplishment): His plans were interesting, but not *practicable*.

**Practical** (useful in practice): Our furnace costs too much to be *practical*.

**Principal** (chief in importance, adj. or noun): The *principal* accepted my excuse.

**Principle** (general ground of belief or conduct): I object to that on *principle*.

**Propose** (to suggest): Have you a better plan to *propose*?

**Purpose** (to intend): What do you *purpose* doing about it?

**Raise** (to cause to rise): The car *was raised* from the bed of the stream.

**Rear** (to bring up to maturity): The boy *was reared* in Chicago.

For sentences containing words confused with other words resembling them, see Rhetorical Problem 5.

**346. Meanings Sometimes Misconceived.** The following list consists of pairs of words entirely different in form and somewhat different in meaning. Writers are sometimes prone, it is found, to use one word of a given pair in a sense that is appropriate only to the other word. A careful study of the exact meanings of the words in question will aid the student in avoiding inappropriate choices. In this list no account is taken, of course, of obvious meanings that never cause confusion.



**Advise** (to give advice): When should you *advise* me to start?

**Inform** (to give information): Please *inform* me when you intend to start.

**Allude** (to suggest indirectly): When you *alluded* to hypocrites, whom did you have in mind?

**Refer** (to mention directly): Was it fair to *refer* to Hawkins as a hypocrite?

**Balance** (money in an account): I send you herewith the *balance* in cash.

**Rest** (the remainder): Most of them have died; the *rest* are scattered.

**Between** (used of two): The estate was divided *between* the two brothers.

**Among** (used of more than two): The estate was divided *among* the four brothers.

**Both** (two together): *Both* the brothers enjoy sailing.

**Each** (two or more separately): *Each* of the brothers has his own boat.

**Can** (to have ability): How far *can* you jump?

**May** (to have permission): How long *may* you stay?

**Character** (what one is): His *character* is really earnest.

**Reputation** (what one is thought to be): He has the *reputation*, however, of being lazy.

**Claim** (assert a claim to): He *claimed* half the estate.

**Maintain** (assert the belief): He *maintained* that the type was hard on the eyes.

**Common** (shared equally): Tim is a *common* friend of both of us.

**Mutual** (reciprocal, each to each): There was *mutual* suspicion between the candidates.

**Each other** (used of two): The two candidates were suspicious of *each other*.

**One another** (used of more than two): All the candidates were suspicious of *one another*.

**Famous** (well known): His invention soon made him *famous*.

**Notorious** (of bad reputation): His miserliness made him *notorious*.

**Generally** (in a broad sense) : He makes himself *generally* useful.

**Usually** (on most occasions) : He is *usually* here by ten o'clock.

**Leave** (abandon) : *Leave* him here by himself.

**Let** (permit) : *Let* him go, if he wants to.

**Less** (in amount, degree) : *Less* rain seems to fall each year.

**Fewer** (in number) : *Fewer* people come each summer.

**Locate** (to determine the position) : Where shall you *locate* your factory?

**Settle** (to become established) : Have you determined to *settle* here?

**Transpire** (to become known) : It *transpired* that this was her third marriage.

**Occur** (to happen) : The accident *occurred* last Friday.

For sentences in which the meanings of words are misconceived, see Rhetorical Problem 6.

**347. Element, Factor, etc.** The group that follows consists of words that are frequently misused because their meanings are not clearly distinguished one from another. In using any one of these words, a writer should make sure that it expresses precisely what he means.

**Characteristic** (a distinctive trait or property) : Her chief *characteristic* was a love of mischief. One *characteristic* of this chair is the extraordinary springiness of its seat.

**Element** (a constituent part in the composition of the whole) : One of the *elements* of good sportsmanship is the ability to take defeat gracefully. Short periods of hard study, light exercise morning and afternoon, and nothing but recreation of an evening are the *elements* of his educational system.

**Factor** (an agency that contributes to a result) : Training in coöperation is a *factor* in the development of the college-bred type. His initiative, his love of system, and his tact were all *factors* in his success.

**Feature** (a notably distinguishing part) : The comic strip has become a *feature* of almost every American newspaper. The horse show was the *feature* of the season's social activities.

**Phase** (one side, or view, of a subject): That was to me a new *phase* of the question. The avoidance of accidents is but one *phase* of the traffic problem.

**Quality** (an attribute that determines value): The *qualities* of this type of paper are thinness and toughness. In one *quality* he was distinctly lacking — a sense of humor.

For sentences in which *element*, *factor*, etc., are misused, see Rhetorical Problem 7.

**348. Euphemisms.** Certain expressions called *Euphemisms* are sometimes substituted for plain, downright words, out of a desire to disguise an idea considered unpleasant or indelicate. The best writers usually prefer the plain, downright word. Typical examples of euphemisms follow: *limb* (for *leg*), *passed away* (for *died*), *remains* (for *body*), *mortician* (for *funeral director*), *retire* (for *go to bed*), *expectorate* (for *spit*), *saleslady* (for *saleswoman*), *paying guest* (for *lodger*), *misappropriate* (for *steal*), *odor* (for *smell*).

For sentences containing euphemisms, see Rhetorical Problem 8.

**349. Pretentious and Stilted Expressions.** Simple, familiar words are usually to be preferred to pretentious substitutes for them. A few examples of the latter kind follow: *augmented*, *caravansary*, *emolument*, *honorarium*, *hostelry*, *incarcerate*, *mendicant*, *repast*, *tonorial*, *vertiginous*.

For sentences containing pretentious and stilted expressions, see Rhetorical Problem 8.

**350. Vague, Loose Expressions.** Certain expressions have been used so often in loose, vague senses that a careful writer either avoids them altogether or uses them with a strict regard to their appropriateness. Thus, *along the lines of*, *along this line*, *in my line*, etc., are especially distasteful to a cultivated writer. It is better to use *asset* as a technical term of finance than to use it in the sense of "anything that is valuable or desirable." The word *proposition*, it has

been said, has come to be used for "anything from a Mississippi River steamboat to a boiled egg." *To have tea at a bridge party* is more precise than *to partake of refreshments at a social function*, and is therefore, as diction, preferable. If a *manual laborer* is a *carpenter*, it is better to call him so; and if an *athletic activity* is *baseball*, the more precise term is to be preferred.

For sentences containing vague, loose expressions, see Rhetorical Problem 8.

**351. Trite Rhetorical Expressions.** There are many expressions, in themselves excellent enough, that have become, through overuse, flat and tiresome. Good writers are alert to avoid them. A few typical examples follow:

aching void	made a pretty picture
all nature seemed	method in his madness
arms of Morpheus	nestles
beat a hasty retreat	proud possessor
blushing bride	psychological moment
breathless silence	reigns supreme
briny deep	rendered a selection
cheered to the echo	sadder but wiser
doomed to disappointment	single blessedness
downy couch	sleep of the just
each and every	slowly but surely
enjoyable occasion	staff of life
fair sex	sumptuous repast
fast and furious	tired but happy
filthy lucre	vast multitude
fragrant weed	was the recipient of
grim reaper	watery grave
in all its glory	well-chosen words
last but not least	wended our way
light fantastic	worked like Trojans
lonely sentinel	worse for wear

For sentences containing trite rhetorical expressions, see Rhetorical Problem 8.

## GOOD CONSTRUCTION WITHIN THE SENTENCE

**352. Unidiomatic Absolute Phrases.** The fact that an absolute participial phrase (232) is grammatically correct does not necessarily mean that it is rhetorically acceptable. There are, indeed, two types of the absolute phrase that are "unidiomatic" in the sense that they sound stiff and formal, like a poor translation from a foreign language. One of these types is the phrase introduced by a personal pronoun.

**Awkward:** *He being out of town*, the sheriff could not question him.

**Natural:** *Since he was out of town*, the sheriff could not question him.

Another awkward phrase is one containing the phrasal past participle (passive).

**Awkward:** *Our car having been wrecked*, we must now look about for another.

**Natural:** *Now that our car has been wrecked*, we must look about for another.

Rhetorically acceptable types of the absolute phrase are illustrated in the following sentences:

*His father having now recovered from his illness*, Richard was free to return to college.

It is considered desirable, *all things being equal*, to choose the captain from the senior class.

For unidiomatic absolute phrases, see Rhetorical Problem 9.

**353. Awkwardly Suspended Constructions.** Although a parenthetical sentence element may interrupt the continuity of a sentence (89), an interruption that unduly separates closely related parts of a sentence may cause an

awkward sense of suspense. Changing the word order of the sentence remedies the fault.

The following sentences illustrate awkward suspense :

**Awkward:** *He*, even after six weeks of strenuous preparation, *was* not yet ready for the test.

**Natural:** Even after six weeks of strenuous preparation, *he was* not yet ready for the test.

**Awkward:** This shadow *causes*, if it crosses by chance some portion of the earth's surface, an *eclipse*.

**Natural:** If this shadow crosses by chance some portion of the earth's surface, it *causes* an *eclipse*.

The following sentence illustrates awkward suspense in an elliptical sentence (see 106 and Grammatical Problem 30) :

**Awkward:** He seemed *aware* of, but was stimulated rather than depressed by, the *hostility* of the audience.

**Natural:** He seemed aware of the hostility of the audience, but was stimulated by it rather than depressed.

For awkwardly suspended constructions, see Rhetorical Problem 10.

**354. Awkwardly Pyramided Clauses.** Clauses that are introduced by the same conjunction or relative pronoun should not be pyramided one upon the other. A radical change in structure may be required to remedy the fault.

**Awkward:** Joel was stunned, *but* no bones were broken, *but* he was obliged to retire from the game.

**Natural:** Joel was stunned, *but* no bones were broken. He was obliged, *however*, to retire from the game.

**Awkward:** We found that we had lost the bolt *which* held the plate *which* supported the engine, *which* was therefore sagging.

**Natural:** We found that the engine was sagging because the bolt holding its supporting plate was missing.

For awkwardly pyramided clauses, see Rhetorical Problem 10.

**355. Consistency in Method of Expression.** A writer having a given idea to express may choose, of course, his method of expressing it. If he wishes, for example, to show that the subject of his verb is indefinite, he may choose any one of the following ways:

On this coast *one* never knows what weather to expect.

On this coast *you* never know what weather to expect.

On this coast *a person* never knows what weather to expect.

The choice between *one* and *you*, of course, is one of person; but there are other choices as well that have sometimes to be made, choices of gender, of number, of tense, of mood, of voice. A writer, then, is free to make his choice; but having made it, he is not free to make a contradictory choice the next instant. He should not, for example, use both *one* and *you* to make successive statements of an indefinite nature.

**Inconsistent:** As *you* never know, on this coast, what weather to expect, *one* must be prepared for whatever comes.

That it is awkward for the reader to adapt himself first to one method of expression, then to another, is further illustrated in the following sentence, in which the voice of the verb is inconsistent:

**Inconsistent:** We all thoroughly *enjoyed* his short stories, but his essays *were felt* to be tedious.

The following sentence is smoother and more effective:

We all thoroughly *enjoyed* his short stories but *felt* his essays to be tedious.

For inconsistency in method of expression, see Rhetorical Problem 11.

**356. Misplaced Modifiers.** A modifier, whether word, phrase, or clause (96-97), may be accounted for grammatically if the word modified stands in the same sentence. If

the sentence is to be effective, however, this is not enough: the reader should instantly and unerringly refer the modifier to the word modified. Otherwise the modifier may be said to be misplaced. There are certain types of *Misplaced Modifiers* against which the writer should be particularly on his guard.

**357. Misplaced Adverbial Modifiers.** Adverbs like *only*, *almost*, *ever* are especially apt to be placed, in careless writing, before words that they do not actually modify. Such misplacement does not necessarily obscure the writer's intention, but it leaves with the reader an unpleasant sense of slovenly expression. Here are examples:

**Misplaced:** In all that week we *only* met two other camping parties.

**Misplaced:** He was the fattest man I *almost* ever saw.

*Only*, of course, should stand before *two*, and *almost* before *the fattest*.

For misplaced adverbial modifiers, see Rhetorical Problem 12.

**358. Misplaced Adjective Modifiers.** An adjective modifier unduly separated from the element it is intended to modify may seem to attach itself inappropriately to some other element. The result, if it is not actually ludicrous, is at least awkward. The remedy, of course, is a change in the sentence order.

**Ludicrous:** My best fish was a trout that I caught with a worm, weighing two pounds.

**Awkward:** In the dining-car a woman sat opposite my wife, *who* proved to have attended her old school.

For misplaced adjective modifiers, see Rhetorical Problem 12.

**359. Squinting Modifiers.** A modifier capable of modifying either one of two sentence elements, and so placed



that the reader cannot be sure to which element it should be referred, is called a *Squinting Modifier*. A change in the sentence order usually remedies the fault.

**Squinting:** Since the gardener *came* on Fridays, *if the weather was fine*, I *could* usually *contrive* to spend an hour or so with him.

**Clear:** Since the gardener *came*, *if the weather was fine*, on Fridays, I *could* usually *contrive* to spend an hour or so with him.

**Clear:** Since the gardener came on Fridays, I *could* usually *contrive*, *if the weather was fine*, to spend an hour or so with him.

For squinting modifiers, see Rhetorical Problem 12.

**360. Split Infinitive.** When a modifier is placed between *to* and the infinitive itself (219), the infinitive is said to be "split." Though a *Split Infinitive* is sometimes justified on the score of clearness, it is a construction that careful writers usually avoid.

**Awkward:** Before choosing our arguments, we had *to carefully determine* the exact meaning of the question.

**Smooth:** Before choosing our arguments, we had *to determine carefully* the exact meaning of the question.

For the split infinitive, see Rhetorical Problem 12.

**361. Inappropriate Passive Voice.** As a rule the active voice is the appropriate one for expressing a thought simply and naturally. The use of the passive voice, unless there is special reason for it (362), is likely to result in an effect of clumsiness.

**Clumsy:** A busy afternoon in the orchard *was spent* by the whole family.

**Natural:** The whole family *spent* a busy afternoon in the orchard.

**Clumsy:** In that one afternoon thirty irregular verbs *were learned* by them.

**Natural:** In that one afternoon they *learned* thirty irregular verbs.

The feeling that modesty should forbid the use of the first personal pronoun sometimes leads an unpracticed writer to avoid *I* by resorting to the use of the passive voice. His well-meant effort results only too often, however, in clumsy sentences that conspicuously defeat their own purpose.

**Clumsy:** *School was left by the present writer at the age of seventeen, but no money for college had been saved up by him.*

**Natural:** *At the age of seventeen I left school, but I had no money saved up for college.*

For inappropriate uses of the passive voice, see Rhetorical Problem 13.

**362. Inappropriate Active Voice.** There are two sets of circumstances under which the use of the active voice is inappropriate. First, the action may be so general that there is no reason for specifying the doer of it.

**Inappropriate:** Miners *do not mine* gold in these hills any longer.

**Appropriate:** Gold *is no longer mined* in these hills.

Second, the doer of the action (214) may be so prominent in thought as to deserve a conspicuous position at the end of the clause or sentence.

**Unemphatic:** At the public exercises *the President will deliver* an address.

**Emphatic:** At the public exercises an address *will be delivered by the President.*

For inappropriate uses of the active voice, see Rhetorical Problem 13.

**363. Weak Beginnings and Endings.** The emphatic positions in a sentence are the beginning and the end. If some unimportant sentence element, such as one that qualifies an assertion, is placed in one of these positions, it becomes unduly conspicuous and weakens correspondingly the force of the sentence.

The remedy for a weak beginning is to insert the unimportant sentence element parenthetically (89) somewhere in the middle of the sentence.

**Weak:** *In my opinion at least*, every government employee should be protected by insurance.

**Strong:** Every government employee should, *in my opinion at least*, be protected by insurance.

One remedy for a weak ending is to reverse the order in which assertions are made.

**Weak:** You must acquire a nose for news *if you wish to succeed as a reporter*.

**Strong:** *If you wish to succeed as a reporter*, you must acquire a nose for news.

Otherwise the remedy for a weak ending is to insert the unimportant sentence element, perhaps parenthetically, somewhere in the middle of the sentence.

**Weak:** The steamer will reach the pier at half past two, *probably*.

**Strong:** The steamer will *probably* reach the pier at half past two.

**Weak:** Every private in the company was the man for top sergeant, *or thought that he was*.

**Strong:** Every private in the company was, *or thought that he was*, the man for top sergeant.

For weak beginnings and endings, see Rhetorical Problem 14.

## GOOD SENTENCES

**364. Complete Sentences.** Every sentence that purports to be complete should be actually complete. One kind of incomplete sentence, that in which a part of a sentence is punctuated as a whole sentence, has been discussed elsewhere (286). A sentence is incomplete in another sense if it lacks either words or ideas necessary to the expression of the writer's meaning.

**365. Necessary Words Omitted.** In ordinary writing words should not be omitted for the purpose of achieving the brevity appropriate to a telegram.

**Incomplete:** Received bill of lading, but freight not yet arrived.

**Complete:** *I have received the bill of lading, but the freight has not yet arrived.*

For the omission of necessary words, see Rhetorical Problem 15.

**366. Necessary Ideas Omitted.** An idea necessary to show the connection between two assertions should not be omitted merely because the writer knows, and the reader might guess, what that connection is.

**Incomplete:** We knew that there were several steamers not far away, but our radio was out of order.

**Complete:** We knew that there were several steamers not far away, but *we could not signal them because* our radio was out of order.

For the omission of necessary ideas, see Rhetorical Problem 15.

**367. Primerlike Sentences.** For the sake of an effect of tense, nervous action, a writer is sometimes justified in using a succession of short and simply constructed sen-

tences. Under other circumstances a succession of such sentences reminds the reader unpleasantly of a child's primer. The remedy lies in combining the short sentences into larger, more complex units.

**Primerlike:** The hollow steel cylinder is about two feet high. Its diameter is five inches. It rests vertically on a firm metal base.

**Effective:** The hollow steel cylinder, which is about two feet high and five inches in diameter, rests vertically on a firm metal base.

For primerlike sentences, see Rhetorical Problem 15.

**368. Tautology.** *Tautology* is the useless repetition of an idea. It is worse than a mere waste of words: it suggests, as well, that the writer does not realize the meaning of the words he uses.

**Tautology:** At the age of seventy he began to write the *autobiography of his life*.

**Tautology:** The skipper was wearing the *same identical* coat in which I had first seen him.

**Tautology:** In a short time the son could set a leg *equally as well as his father*.

For tautology, see Rhetorical Problem 16.

**369. Wordiness.** Using many words to express an idea that can be conveyed in relatively few results in *Wordiness*. A writer who trains himself to use simple, direct forms of expression will instinctively avoid the fault.

**Wordy:** Throughout all his life, Father was constitutionally averse to writing letters.

**Compact:** Father always hated to write letters.

**Wordy:** We are all of us in hope that you will find it possible to come at a not distant date.

**Compact:** We all hope that you can come soon.

For wordiness, see Rhetorical Problem 16.

**370. Diffuseness.** A sentence may be diffuse by reason of the unnecessary piling up of unimportant details. The

obvious remedy of *Diffuseness* is to cut out the parts that can well be spared.

**Diffuse:** At the circus, not only in the case of "the greatest show on earth" but also in that of the moderate-sized troupe, I have always resented the fact that there is too much, in the way of acrobats, trained animals, clowns, jugglers, etc., to see, or at least to pay close attention to, at one and the same time.

**Compact:** At the circus, whether large or relatively small, I have always resented the fact that there is too much to see at one time.

For diffuseness, see Rhetorical Problem 16.

**371. Rambling Sentences.** Every sentence should have a central purpose, and this purpose should be so clearly conveyed to the reader that he will feel it to have been accomplished when the sentence comes to a close. A *Rambling Sentence* is one which is felt not to be in the control of a central purpose; instead, it wanders aimlessly further and further from its original starting point, and stops only when it is, as it were, out of breath. The remedy lies in dividing the sentence into appropriate units.

**Rambling:** On the top floor of the refinery the raw sugar is discharged into "minglers" and thoroughly mixed with sirup, which is used because, being a saturated solution, it does not dissolve the sugar as water would, and in this way a mixture called "magma" is made, with the consistency of soft mortar, for in this state the sugar may flow freely during the operation which follows.

**Controlled:** On the top floor of the refinery the raw sugar is discharged into "minglers," in which it is thoroughly mixed with sirup. Sirup is used because, being a saturated solution, it does not dissolve the sugar as water would. The resulting mixture, called "magma," has the consistency of soft mortar. In this state the sugar may flow freely during the operation which follows.

For rambling sentences, see Rhetorical Problem 16.

**372. Emphasis through Subordination.** The thought material of a sentence ordinarily consists of more than one idea, each idea being expressed in a sentence element of some kind. Thus, a sentence might consist of these two ideas: (1) that Jack was in a hurry and (2) that he forgot to seal the letter. Now if one of these ideas is expressed in a principal clause (82), it receives the greatest possible emphasis; if it is expressed in a subordinate clause (83), it receives less; and if it is expressed in a phrase (67), it receives still less. In the following sentences the fact that Jack was in a hurry is expressed three times, each time in a different kind of sentence element:

**Principal Clause:** *Jack was in a hurry*, and so he forgot to seal the letter.

**Subordinate Clause:** *Since Jack was in a hurry*, he forgot to seal the letter.

**Phrase:** Jack forgot, *in his haste*, to seal the letter.

If now these three sentences are reëxamined for the purpose of noting the relative emphasis placed upon the second idea, the following facts are observed: (1) In the first sentence it receives about the same emphasis that the first idea receives, for both are in principal clauses. (2) In the second sentence the lessened emphasis on the subordinate clause leaves a relatively greater emphasis on the principal clause. (3) In the third sentence the very slight emphasis on the phrase leaves almost the entire emphasis of the sentence upon the principal clause.

A writer has it in his power, then, to control the emphasis in his sentences. The more emphasis he wastes, by putting unimportant material in sentence elements of high grammatical rank (99), the less emphasis he has left for important material. On the other hand, the more he subordinates unimportant material, the more emphasis is left for that which is really important.

How skilful subordination makes for compact, vigorous expression may be seen by comparing the following sentences:

PRINCIPAL CLAUSE CHANGED TO SUBORDINATE CLAUSE

**Unemphatic:** *The moon had not risen*, but there was light enough for us to find our way.

**Emphatic:** *Though the moon had not risen*, there was yet light enough for us to find our way.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE CHANGED TO A PHRASE

**Unemphatic:** Luckily some neighbors, *who lived across the street*, heard her cries.

**Emphatic:** Luckily some neighbors *across the street* heard her cries.

CLAUSE CHANGED TO AN APPOSITIVE

**Unemphatic:** *My mount was a racing camel*, and he was certainly uncomfortable.

**Emphatic:** My mount, *a racing camel*, was certainly uncomfortable.

VERBAL PHRASE CHANGED TO A PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

**Unemphatic:** And still he worked on, *without having any hope of promotion*.

**Emphatic:** And still he worked on, *without hope of promotion*.

For emphasis through subordination, see Rhetorical Problem 17.

**373. Logical Subordination.** It is logical, obviously, to put the important idea of a sentence in a principal clause and an unimportant idea in a subordinate construction. To reverse the process is illogical, and for that reason is usually ineffective.

**Illogical:** At last he reached his house, which he found burned to the ground.

**Logical:** On reaching his house at last, he found it burned to the ground.



**Illogical:** One day Penfield found himself in difficulties, when he came to me for advice.

**Logical:** When Penfield one day found himself in difficulties, he came to me for advice.

For logical subordination, see Rhetorical Problem 18.

**374. Emphasis through Transposed Order.** Special emphasis may be given to a sentence element by taking it out of an inconspicuous position and putting it into a conspicuous one. The resulting sentence order is not normal (102), but transposed (103). Compare, for example, the following sentences:

**Normal:** He had *never* been so embarrassed.

**Transposed:** *Never* had he been so embarrassed.

**Normal:** I had never really examined *the contents of the wallet*.

**Transposed:** *The contents of the wallet* I had never really examined.

For emphasis through transposed order, see Rhetorical Problem 19.

**375. Emphasis through Periodic Structure.** A sentence may often be made more emphatic by being changed in structure from loose (120) to periodic (121).

One method of making a loose sentence periodic is to change the order of the parts.

**Loose:** The confusion became greater as more people crowded into the auditorium.

**Periodic:** As more people crowded into the auditorium, the confusion became greater.

Another method is to use correlative conjunctions (274).

**Loose:** The retail dealers could not sell the goods, nor could they turn them back.

**Periodic:** The retail dealers could neither sell the goods nor turn them back.

Another method is to change a principal clause (82) at the beginning of a sentence into a subordinate sentence element.

**Loose:** Harry took her to a concert one evening, and then everybody was certain that they were engaged.

**Periodic:** From the evening when Harry took her to a concert, everybody was certain that they were engaged.

**Loose:** We were delayed by having a blow-out, but yet, we managed to reach the boat on time.

**Periodic:** In spite of delay over a blow-out, we managed to reach the boat on time.

It must not be inferred, however, that a loose sentence is necessarily a bad sentence. On the contrary, it may have a natural ease that is especially appropriate in informal writing.

For emphasis through periodic structure, see Rhetorical Problem 19.

**376. Emphasis through Balanced Structure.** A sentence in which ideas are compared or contrasted may often be made compact and emphatic by being constructed as a balanced sentence (122).

**Not balanced:** They will not play hard because they would be proud if they were to win, but losing would make them ashamed.

**Balanced:** They will play hard, not because they would be proud to win, but because they would be ashamed to lose.

For emphasis through balanced structure, see Rhetorical Problem 19.

**377. Varied Sentences.** Variety in sentence structure makes for pleasing, readable style. There may be occasions, to be sure, when special considerations justify uniformity in sentence structure, but even then the uniformity is effective only as it is felt to contrast with a background of varied sentences.

When modifiers, with the words modified, make a succession of uniform patterns in a sentence, the effect is usually displeasing to the ear. Changing the pattern by cutting out modifiers usually improves the effectiveness of such a sentence.

**Uniform:** Dobbs was an *earnest, painstaking student*, but his *hard, conscientious work* never resulted in an *assured, competent mastery* of his subject.

**Varied:** Dobbs was a *painstaking student*, but his *hard, conscientious work* never resulted in an *assured mastery* of his subject.

When the same sentence structure is used in sentence after sentence, the effect is usually unpleasantly monotonous. The following succession of compound sentences illustrates the point:

**Uniform:** The teams were lined up, and the whistle blew. Rossi kicked the ball, and Holman caught it on the fifteen-yard line. He ran it in eight yards and then he was thrown.

**Varied:** When the teams had lined up and the whistle had blown, Rossi kicked to Holman on the fifteen-yard line. Holman ran it in eight yards before being thrown.

The monotonous effect of introducing a succession of sentences in the same way is illustrated in the following passage:

**Uniform:** On our left a low island made shelter for a cluster of fishing boats at their moorings. On the right a long point of land ran out to a ledge of rocks. In front of us a twisting channel, marked by buoys, led to the open bay. Directly behind us the village sloped up gently from the shore.

**Varied:** A low island on our left made shelter for fishing boats clustered at their moorings. Between that and a long point of land opposite, running out to a ledge of rocks, lay a twisted channel, marked by buoys, leading to the open bay. The village, directly behind us, sloped up gently from the shore.

For variety in sentences, see Rhetorical Problem 20.



# Matters of Form

## SPELLING

**378. Difficulties of Spelling.** For a variety of reasons, the spelling of English words is a peculiarly difficult subject. Some master it chiefly through the eye, others chiefly through the ear. Both eye and ear should be trained to alertness in recognizing troublesome words and in mastering them when recognized.

Every student should have a dictionary at hand for consultation; and it will pay him to take time not only to look up troublesome words but also to impress on his mind, once and for all, the correct spelling of each. The following sections deal systematically with many of the problems that in practice are found most troublesome; and one who has thoroughly mastered them will have comparatively little need for constant consultation of the dictionary.

**379. Correct Pronunciation as an Aid.** Certain words are often misspelled because they are pronounced carelessly.

Give each of the following words its full number of syllables:

boundary

laboratory

temperament

Do not omit any consonant in pronouncing or spelling the following words:

arctic

February

government

recognize

whether

Do not add vowels in spelling any of the following words:

athletics

grievous

similar

village

disastrous

hindrance

umbrella

wondrous

**380. Single Consonants.** Note that the following words are spelled with single consonants:

across	amount	apart	around	arouse
balance	banana	forest	harass	pastime

**381. Double Consonants.** Note that the following words are spelled with double consonants:

address	arrange	arrive	assassin	committee
embarrass	exaggerate	immediate	intellectual	misspell
possess	syllable	suppress	symmetry	

**382. Single and Double Consonants.** Note, in the following words, which consonants are single and which are double:

correlate	disappoint	necessary	occasion
omission	parallel	professor	recommend

**383. Silent *H*.** Contrast with *exonerate* and *exuberant* the following words in which *h* is silent:

exhaust	exhibit	exhilarate	exhort
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**384. *C* and *S*.** Note that the nouns *advice* and *device* are different both in spelling and pronunciation from the verbs *advise* and *devise*. The form *practice*, however, may be both noun and verb, *practise* being an alternative verb form.

**385. *Ei* or *Ie* Pronounced *Ee*.** When there is uncertainty whether a sound pronounced *ee* should be spelled with *ei* or *ie*, note the consonant introducing the syllable. If it is *c*, *ei* is usually the correct spelling. The fact that *e* follows *c* in *Celia* will aid the memory.

ceiling	conceit	deceit	receipt
	conceive	deceive	receive

(Note, however, that *financier* is an exception.)

If the consonant is some other letter, *i* usually follows it, just as *i* follows *l* in *Celia*.

achieve	believe	chief	grief	piece	siege
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(Note, however, exceptions; *leisure*, *neither*, *seize*, *weird*.)

**386. *Ei* or *Ie* Not Pronounced *Ee*.** When the sound is not *ee*, *ei* is usually the correct spelling.

freight	heir	neighbor	veil	weigh
height	sleight	heifer	counterfeit	foreign

(Note, however, that *ancient*, *friend*, *handkerchief*, *mischievous*, and *view* are exceptions.)

**387. *Ceed* or *Cede*.** Contrast the spelling of *exceed*, *proceed*, and *succeed* with that of *concede*, *intercede*, *precede*, and *recede*. Note also the inconsistency between *proceed* and *procedure*.

**388. *Ence* (*ent*), *Ance* (*ant*), or *Ense*.** Contrast the spelling of *attendance*, *perseverance*, and *pleasant* with that of the following words:

audience	confidence	correspondence	difference
excellence	existence	experience	independence
innocence	persistence	reference	sentence

Contrast, however, *confidant* (noun) with *confident* (adjective), and note that *dependant* (noun) is a variant of *dependent*.

Note that, with the exception of a few words like *incense*, *license*, *nonsense*, and *recompense*, words ending in *ense* are either monosyllables or words accented on the last syllable:

dense	expense	immense	sense	tense
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**389. *Ible* or *Able*.** Contrast the spelling of *indispensable*, *lovable*, *movable*, *unmistakable*, etc., with that of the following words:

contemptible	credible	dirigible	eligible
irresistible	permissible	possible	

**390. *Ar*, *Er*, *Or*.** Note how the last syllables of the following words are spelled:

beggar	calendar	collar	grammar	adviser
conqueror	doctor	humor	sailor	visitor

**391. Obscure Vowels.** Vowels of unaccented syllables are "obscure" when they are not clearly pronounced. The ear, therefore, is not a reliable guide to the spelling of such syllables. In the following groups of words, the obscure vowels, emphasized by bold-faced type, should be strongly impressed upon the mind :

<b>a</b> :	boundary	dictionary	imaginary	secretary
	fundamental	preparation	separate	stationary (adj.)
<b>e</b> :	describe	despair	mattress	persuade
	benefit	desperate	repetition	stationery (noun)
<b>i</b> :	diminish	divide	ridiculous	
	optimism	privilege	infinite	
<b>o</b> :	apology	opportunity	sophomore	
<b>u</b> :	luxury	murmur	pursue	Saturday

Contrast especially *stationary* and *stationery*, *persuade* and *pursue*.

**392. Groups of Words.** The list that follows consists of groups of words pronounced alike. The spelling of each word should be associated with the word's special meaning or meanings.

altar	aught	bad	berth	canvas
alter	ought	bade	birth	canvass
capital	coarse	colonel	lead (noun)	mantel
capitol	course	kernel	led (verb)	mantle
O	peace	plain	read (verb)	sew
oh	piece	plane	red (adj.)	sow
stake	steal	straight	their	weak
steak	steel	strait	there	week
	rain	sight	write	
	rein	site	right	
	reign	cite	wright	
			rite	

The list that follows consists of groups of words which have certain resemblances but are neither spelled nor pro-



nounced exactly alike. The spelling of each word should be associated with its exact pronunciation as well as with its meaning or meanings.

born	breath	cloths	corps	council
borne	breathe	clothes	corpse	counsel
desert	deceased	instance	lightning	lose
dessert	diseased	instants	lightening	loose
personal	precedence	quiet	shone	speak
personnel	precedents	quite	shown	speech
suit	therefore	thorough	decent	
suite	therefor	through	descent	
			dissent	

Contrast especially *lose*, the verb, with *loose*, the adjective.

Distinguish also between pronouns and abbreviations:

its	their	whose	your
it's	they're	who's	you're

For such pairs of words as *affect* — *effect*, *principal* — *principle*, etc., see 345.

**393. Inconsistent Spellings.** Note especially the following groups of words in which the spelling, emphasized by bold-faced type, is inconsistent:

despair	comparison	maintain
desperate	comparative	maintenance
four, fourteen, fourth	nine	nineteen, ninety
forty	ninth	

**394. Proper Names.** The following pairs of proper names should be carefully distinguished:

Austen, Jane	Johnson, Samuel	Spencer, Herbert
Austin, Alfred	Jonson, Ben	Spenser, Edmund
Stevenson, R. L.	Thompson, Francis	Philippines (islands)
Stephenson, George	Thomson, James	Filipinos (persons)

Note also the following spellings: *Macaulay, Thackeray.*

**395. French Words.** Note carefully the spellings of the following words from the French:

amateur	bureau	bouquet	chaperon
chauffeur	connoisseur	fatigue	grandeur
intrigue	lieutenant	maneuver	mortgage

**396. Miscellaneous Words.** The words in the following miscellaneous list are often misspelled, usually because the pronunciation is not a guide to the written form:

attach	bus	business	ecstasy
extraordinary	handsome	prove	prejudice

**397. Variant Spellings.** Usage permits certain words to be spelled in more than one way. In the following groups of words, the first of the spellings is usually to be preferred on the ground of simplicity:

catalog	gram	program
catalogue	gramme	programme
esthetic	encyclopedia	medieval
æsthetic	encyclopædia	mediæval
abridgment	acknowledgment	judgment
abridgement	acknowledgement	judgement
diagramed	quarreled	traveled
diagrammed	quarrelled	travelled
		worshiped
		worshipped

In the following groups of words, the first of the two spellings indicates American usage; the second, British usage:

criticize	legalize	penalize
criticise	legalise	penalise
honor	labor	savior
honour	labour	saviour
center	meter	theater
centre	metre	theatre

**398. Derived Forms.** A word form that is obtained by changing some other form is said to be "derived." The following sections deal with the spelling of derived forms of two kinds: (1) different words formed from originals by the addition of suffixes (e.g., *beautiful* from *beauty*, *reference* from *refer*); or (2) different inflections of the same word (e. g., *beauties* from *beauty*, *referred* from *refer*). In the following explanation of principles, both new words built up by suffixes and inflected forms of verbs and verbals will be treated together. The plurals of nouns will be reserved for separate treatment.

**399. Doubling of Consonants.** The words *dined* and *dinned* are both derived words. The single *n* of the former word signals to the reader that the *i* is to be pronounced long; the doubled *n* of the latter word signals that the *i* is short. It will be noticed that the word *din* is a monosyllable in which a single short vowel is followed by a single consonant. When a suffix beginning with a vowel is added to a monosyllable of this type, the final consonant is doubled, as an indication that the vowel is to be pronounced short.

fat	red	tin	drop	shut
fatter	reddish	tinny	dropped	shutter

Contrast the following words having long vowels, in which the consonant is not doubled:

fated	ceded	twining	doped	brutal
-------	-------	---------	-------	--------

(Note that the word *gaseous* is an exception.)

The words *secured* and *occurred* are not monosyllables, but the accent falls on the final syllable. It will be noticed, also, that in the accented syllable of *occur* a single short vowel is followed by a single consonant. The rule for monosyllables applies also to words of this type: when a suffix beginning with a vowel is added, the final consonant is doubled. In the following pairs of words, contrast the short vowels and

the doubled consonants of the words in the top row with the long vowels and the single consonants of the words standing below them :

unmanned	referred	beginning	extolled	nonplussed
profaned	revered	refining	cajoled	abused

(Note that the words *chagrined* and *transferable* are exceptions.)

When the accent of a derived word is shifted to a preceding syllable, the rule does not apply. Thus, compare *referring* with *reference*, *conferred* with *conference*. (*Excellent*, from *excel*, is an exception.)

For words which may be spelled with single or double consonants at will, see 397.

**400. Silent *E* before a Consonant.** A final silent *e* is usually retained before a suffix beginning with a consonant.

lovely	hireling	movement	lameness
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(Note that *awful*, *duly*, *truly*, *wholly* are exceptions. Note also that certain words ending in *ment* (397) are usually spelled without the silent *e*.)

**401. Silent *E* before a Vowel.** A final silent *e* is usually dropped before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

bridal	changing	guidance	lovable
moving	plumage	receding	usage

(Note that the rule does not apply to words like *hoeing*, *shoeing*, *agreeing*, in which the final *e* is part of a diphthong.)

**402. Silent *E* Retained after Soft *C*, *G*.** *C* and *g* are usually pronounced soft before *e*, *i*, or *y* (*Celia*, *genial*, *gymnast*) and hard before *a*, *o* (*cable*, *gable*, *gory*). When a suffix beginning with *a* or *o* is added to a word ending in a soft *c* or *g* sound, the *e* is retained to show that the *c* or *g* is soft.

notice	peace	change	courage
noticeable	peaceable	changeable	courageous

Before a suffix beginning with *i* there is no need to emphasize the softness of *c* or *g*; therefore, *noticing*, *changing* are the correct spellings. Note, however, how a difference in spelling distinguishes *singe*, *singeing* from *sing*, *singing*.

**403. Ck in Picnicking, etc.** Words ending in *c* add *k* before a suffix beginning with *e*, *i*, or *y*, to show that the sound is hard.

panic	picnic	traffic
panicky	picnicking	trafficker

**404. Y before a Suffix.** Final *y*, when preceded by a consonant, is changed to *i* before a suffix beginning with any letter except *i*.

busy	duty	happy	hardy	mercy
busily	dutiful	happier	hardihood	merciful

(Note that *babyhood* is an exception.)

If the suffix begins with *i*, *y* is retained.

carrying	crying	marrying	trying
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If a verb ends in *y* preceded by a consonant, *y* is changed to *ie* in the inflected forms of the present and past tenses.

carry	cry	marry	try
carries	cries	marries	tries
carried	cried	married	tried

Final *y*, when preceded by a vowel, is usually retained before a suffix.

destroy	employ	play	survey
destroyed	employs	played	surveys
destroyer	employment	playful	surveyor

(Note, however, these exceptions: *daily*, *gaiety*; *laid*, *paid*, *said*.)

**405. Plurals of Nouns.** Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel add *s* to form the plural; but if the *y* is preceded by a consonant, the plural form ends in *ies*. Thus, compare *valley*, *valleys* with *folly*, *follies*.

(Note, however, that proper names, like "the two *Marys*," are exceptions; also the word *drys*.)

Most nouns ending in *f* have plurals in *ves*; a few, however, retain the spelling and the sound of *f*. Thus, compare *half*, *halves* and *leaf*, *leaves* with *belief*, *beliefs* and *grief*, *griefs*.

Many common nouns ending in *o*, like *echo*, *hero*, *mosquito*, *Negro*, *potato*, have plurals in *oes*: *echoes*, *heroes*, etc. Some, however, have plurals in *os*: *banjos*, *pianos*, *solos*, *sopranos*, etc.

The plurals of words considered as such and of letters, figures, and symbols are formed by adding *'s*.

two *if's*      two *t's*      two *3's*      two *+ 's*

**406. Foreign Plurals.** Mistakes in the use of familiar foreign nouns that retain the singular and plural forms of the original languages will be avoided by a study of the following words:

Sing. <i>alumnus</i> (masc.)	<i>alumna</i> (fem.)	<i>analysis</i>	<i>basis</i>	<i>datum</i>
Plu. <i>alumni</i> (masc.)	<i>alumnae</i> (fem.)	<i>analyses</i>	<i>bases</i>	<i>data</i>
Sing. <i>parenthesis</i>	<i>phenomenon</i>	<i>stratum</i>	<i>thesis</i>	
Plu. <i>parentheses</i>	<i>phenomena</i>	<i>strata</i>	<i>theses</i>	

#### EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 378-406

1. Supply the correct diphthong, *ie* or *ei*, in each of the following words:

p__ce	dec__ve	l__sure	ach__ve	sl__ght
v__l	for__gn	c__ling	s__ge	bel__ve
w__rd	misch__f	s__ze	n__ther	fr__nd
ch__f	gr__f	rec__ve	w__gh	conc__t

2. Complete, with letters expressing the sound of *seed*, the following words:

ex_____	con_____	re_____	pre_____
super_____	pro_____	inter_____	suc_____

3. Complete, with letters expressing approximately the sound of *ens*, the following words:

confid_	sent_	persever_	differ_
refer_	imm_	experi_	excell_
attend_	audi_	exp_	s_

4. Supply the correct ending, *able* or *ible*, of each of the following words:

cred_	poss_	elig_	unmistak_
mov_	lov_	permiss_	irresist_

5. Supply the correct endings, *ar*, *er*, or *or*, of each of the following words:

hum_	gramm_	coll_	sail_
advis_	visit_	begg_	conquer_

6. Supply the vowel omitted from each of the following words:

d_	p_r	ben_	apol_gy	sep_r
murm_r	d_spair	priv_lege	desp_rate	p_rsuade
inf_nite	bound_ry	imagin_ry	prep_ration	lux_ry
soph_more	opt_mism	Sat_rday	d_minish	diction_ry

7. In the left-hand column are suggested the sounds of words represented in the sentences by blanks. Supply the word, correctly spelled, for each blank.

**brth**    The place of his \_\_\_\_\_ is not known.  
The upper \_\_\_\_\_ was hot.

**capitl**    How high is the dome of the \_\_\_\_\_ ?  
Why was Albany chosen as the \_\_\_\_\_ ?

**cōrs**    First scrape it with \_\_\_\_\_ sandpaper.  
Our \_\_\_\_\_ now lay due east.

**mantl**    Under her \_\_\_\_\_ she concealed two packages.  
On the \_\_\_\_\_ stood a large gilt clock.

**plān**    His ideals were all on a high \_\_\_\_\_.  
He was brought up on a treeless \_\_\_\_\_.

- rān**     The ----- fell heavily throughout the night.  
           He should be driven with a light -----.  
           Trouble came as soon as his ----- was begun.
- rīt**     He can read, but not -----.  
           You will need a wheel----- to mend that.  
           Try to do it ----- the first time.  
           The ----- was reverently performed.
- sō**     Please ----- the button on tight.  
           It will soon be time to ----- the barley.
- stāk**    Do you like your ----- underdone?  
           You may ----- your life on it.
- sīt**     I have hardly caught ----- of him since Monday.  
           The new factory will be on the ----- of the old.  
           He could not ----- the exact page.
- stēl**    There was not much in the house to -----.  
           Though light, it is as hard as -----.
- strāt**   The road is both ----- and level.  
           He found me in a sad -----.
- tāl**     Nobody believed his -----.  
           His flowing ----- had been docked.
- thār**    Write me as soon as you get -----.  
           They must have lost ----- way.
- wēk**    My illness left me ----- for months.  
           I was ill for only one -----.

8. Supply the missing letters of the words that are here spelled only in part or merely suggested.

The blow knocked my bre----- out.  
 For a few minutes I could hardly bre-----.

He kept his hand bound in hot clo-----.  
 She had brought nothing but summer clo-----.

First came the pipe-and-drum cor-----.  
 The cor----- was removed to the morgue.



His coun\_\_\_\_\_ proved to be most wise.

The coun\_\_\_\_\_ exercises executive functions also.

Every day they had pie for des\_\_\_\_\_.

It was his first night on the des\_\_\_\_\_.

The d\_\_\_\_\_eased arm had to be amputated.

The will of the d\_\_\_\_\_eased will be opened tomorrow.

He was never known to lo\_\_\_\_\_ his patience.

A lo\_\_\_\_\_ fan-belt had caused the trouble.

My person\_\_\_\_\_ opinion of him is high.

The regiment has set a high standard for its person\_\_\_\_\_.

The room was once more qui\_\_\_\_\_.

Yes, I am now qui\_\_\_\_\_ recovered.

His new su\_\_\_\_\_ had just come from the tailor's.

We are now established in our new su\_\_\_\_\_ of rooms.

9. Supply the present participle and the past participle of the following words :

hop	dare	compel	fuse	annul	sob
declare	joke	rob	lame	dip	occur
collide	bake	cure	rot	skip	gaze
step	reverse	demur	plan	stab	rip
rule	denote	confer	dispel	assume	deter

10. When the ending *ly* is added to each of the following words, how is the resulting word spelled ?

love	tame	true	whole	fine	pure
due	lone	trite	lame	home	mute

11. When the ending *able* is added to each of the following words, how is the resulting word spelled ?

debate	blame	love	notice	use
change	transmute	receive	peace	like

12. Supply the past-tense forms of the following words ending in *y* :

play	annoy	carry	spray	dry	imply
stray	deny	convoy	assay	reply	try
supply	marry	decay	fancy	occupy	delay

13. Supply the plural forms of the following words ending in *y* :

lily	valley	monkey	copy	lady	chimney
donkey	body	folly	pulley	volley	berry

14. Supply the plural forms of the following nouns ending in *f* :

grief	half	waif	thief	roof	leaf
-------	------	------	-------	------	------

15. For the following nouns of foreign origin, supply the forms, whether singular or plural, that are not here given :

phenomena	alumnæ	thesis	data
alumnus	strata	parentheses	bases

## COMPOUNDING

**407. The Problem of Compounding.** A writer often has to decide whether two or more words should (1) be written separately, (2) be joined by a hyphen, or (3) be written as one word without a hyphen. It is usage that determines the answer to every such problem; but even usage, as recorded by dictionaries, is not always uniform (cf. *dining room* and *dining-room*), and sometimes it seems purely arbitrary (cf. *in so far as* and *inasmuch as*).

A study of usage, however, discloses guiding principles that have a certain practical value. In cases of doubt it is always wisest to consult the dictionary.

For the use of the hyphen at the end of a line, see 415–420.

**408. Stages in Compounding.** The successive stages through which words sometimes pass are illustrated as follows:

Earliest stage, *to day*; later stage, *to-day*; final stage, *today*.

When changes of form occur, they are in the direction indicated by these examples. The present tendency is to do away with hyphenated forms in favor of solid compounds.

Compare the following groups of words:

bell jar	half dead	heart trouble	law school
bell-metal	half-mast	heart-disease	law-abiding
bellboy	halfback	heartache	lawgiver

It will be observed that each stage in compounding marks a closer association between the words brought together. It is noteworthy, too, that whereas the accent of the hyphenated words is fairly evenly distributed, the accent on the solid compounds is concentrated upon one syllable.

**409. Adjective Compounds.** A word group used as a single adjective before its noun is usually hyphenated, to emphasize unity of function. Thus the meaning of *a normal school teacher* might be ambiguous; that of *a normal-school teacher* is not. Typical examples of both shorter and longer hyphenated word groups follow:

best-laid plans	ten-dollar racket
middle-aged man	long-forgotten friend
jumping-off place	old-fashioned girl
one-inch pipe	wished-for invitation
up-to-date newspaper	eight-oared shell
high-speed engine	out-of-the-way place
wide-awake clerk	never-to-be-forgotten day
paid-up policy	down-in-the-mouth expression

If one member of such a word group is an adverb in *ly*, the hyphen is not used.

carefully laid plans	highly effective engine
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It should be noted also that word groups that are hyphenated when standing before their nouns are not hyphenated when they follow their nouns.

The clerk was always *wide awake*.

The place was too far *out of the way*.

**410. Distinctions of Meaning.** That compounding, either with or without the hyphen, may bring out distinctions of meaning is shown by the following examples:

a man of war	a blue stocking
a man-of-war	a bluestocking

**411. Distinctions of Construction.** Though such words as *time* and *while* may be combined with other words to form adverbs, they should be written separately when they are nouns.

Here we rested <i>awhile</i> .	Won't you visit us <i>sometime</i> ?
Here we rested for <i>a while</i> .	Spend <i>some time</i> with us.

For the distinction between such words as *anyone* and *any one*, see 173. Note also the difference between the usual form, *cannot*, and the emphatic form, *can not*.

For the distinction between *altogether* and *all together*, *already* and *all ready*, see 345.

**412. Notable Examples.** The forms of the following words should be specially noted :

all right	by and by	high school	post office
by-laws	good-bye	helter-skelter	Pre-Raphaelite
ex-secretary Smith		vice-presidential mansion	
farewell	inasmuch	nevertheless	newspaper
northeast, etc.	notwithstanding	postmaster	semicolon

**413. Whole Numbers.** The whole numbers from 21 to 99 should be written with hyphens.

twenty-one	fifty-fourth	ninety-nine
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It is not customary to use the hyphen with the words *hundred*, *thousand*, etc.

One hundred and fifty-sixth	one thousand and one
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**414. Fractions.** When fractions are used as adjectives or adverbs, the hyphen should ordinarily be used.

He won by a *three-fourths* vote.

The work is *nine-tenths* complete.

(Note, however, such exceptions as *twenty-four fortieths*.)

When the denominator of a fraction is used as a noun, the hyphen is not necessary.

I did *two thirds* of the work myself.

## HYPHENATING

**415. Purpose of Hyphenating.** It is often convenient to divide a word of more than one syllable at the end of a line when the word is too long to be written in that line. A hyphen is then placed after the first part of the word, to show that the word has been divided.

**416. Words Not To Be Hyphenated.** Words of one syllable should not be divided.

strength (not stre-/ngth)

straight (not stra-/ight)

should (not sho-/uld)

shipped (not ship-/ped)

A syllable of one letter should not be separated from the rest of its word.

alone (not a-/lone)

many (not man-/y)

It is usually better not to separate a syllable of two letters.

**417. Compound Words.** A compound word should be divided between the words that compose it.

leather-/back (not lea-/therback)

poor-/spirited (not poor-spir-/ited)

forget-/me-not (not for-/get-me-not)

**418. Prefixes and Suffixes.** Words formed with prefixes or suffixes may conveniently be divided at the point where the two parts are joined.

inter-/coastal

loco-/motive

pro-/fessor

sub-/servient

judg-/ment

neutral-/ize

interest-/ing

bring-/ing

Note, however, that when a consonant is doubled after a short vowel (399), the point of division is between the two consonants.

hit-/ting (cf. hiss-/ing)

occur-/ring

occur-/rence

**419. Division between Syllables.** A word should be divided between complete syllables, not between the letters of one syllable.

The pronunciation of a word will usually show when two successive consonants belong to different syllables.

ful-/fil      prac-/tice      hiber-/nate      orches-/tral

In doubtful cases the dictionary will show what the syllables of a word are.

**420. Preferable Division.** It is desirable to divide a word so that the part that ends one line will suggest the word being divided rather than another word.

Episco-/palian (cf. epis-/tle)      strangu-/lation (cf. stran-/ger)

It is desirable to place a syllable consisting of a single vowel at the end of the first line rather than at the beginning of the second.

litera-/ture (not liter-/ature)      simili-/tude (not simil-/itude)

## CAPITALIZING

**421. Purpose of Capitalizing.** Capital letters are used, for the most part, for one of two purposes: (1) to mark beginnings, as of sentences or lines of poetry, or (2) to indicate the names by which individual persons, places, and things are known. Sometimes the use of the capital, as in the word *I*, is purely conventional.

In the sections that follow, first the words that are always capitalized will be treated, then such words as are capitalized in certain uses but not in others, finally certain words that are not ordinarily capitalized at all.

**422. Words Beginning Sentences.** The first word of a sentence is always capitalized.

"Have you never traveled abroad?"

"No, never."

This rule applies to an entire quoted sentence incorporated within another sentence, but not to an incomplete quoted word group.

He turned away, muttering to himself, "We shall see."

The "irrepressible conflict" was at last joined.

The rule applies also to an entire sentence, not quoted, incorporated within another sentence.

The question was, What should we do with him?

This was our problem: What should we do with him?

For the capitalization of a series of sentences constituting a formal enumeration after a colon, see 92.

For a series of questions or exclamations written without capitals, see 284.



**423. Words Beginning Lines of Poetry.** The first word of a line of poetry is, in conventional usage, always capitalized.

Move upward, working out the beast,  
And let the ape and tiger die.

**424. *I* and *O*.** The word *I* and the sign of direct address, *O*, are always capitalized.

If you don't, I shall.  
But you, O friends, know better.

Note, however, that the exclamation *oh*, expressing emotion, is capitalized only if it begins a sentence.

Oh, can't you see what I mean?  
She was dressed, oh so charmingly, in yellow.

**425. Key Words of a Resolution.** The key words of a formal resolution are capitalized as follows:

WHEREAS, It . . . ; and  
WHEREAS, He . . . ; and  
WHEREAS, We . . . ; therefore, be it  
*Resolved*, That . . . ; and be it further  
*Resolved*, That . . .

Note also the small capitals and the italics.

**426. Capitals in Word Groups.** In the sections that follow, the word *names* applies as well to word groups as to single words. A word group is considered capitalized if the important words of the group are capitalized. Articles, prepositions, conjunctions, and auxiliaries are unimportant unless there is special reason for emphasizing them.

Around the World in Eighty Days. Stalky and Co.

Although newspapers often capitalize only the distinguishing words in word groups (e.g., 416 *Main street*, the *Rocky mountains*, the *Seventh regiment*), the practice is not to be commended.

For the use of the article in titles of books, magazines, etc., see 432.

**427. Capitals in Hyphenated Words.** Each part of a word compounded with a hyphen is ordinarily capitalized, especially if it is a noun.

Anglo-Saxon	the <i>Record-Herald</i>	Franco-German
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Note, however, such exceptions as the following :

Forty-second Street	Man-of-War Days	ex-President Wilson
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**428. Personal Names.** The individual names of persons, as well as epithets and nicknames substituted for them, are regularly capitalized.

Jack Norton	Aristotle	Henry the Second
Jack the Ripper	Topsy	the Grand Old Man

Words derived from individual names, if distinctly associated with their origin, also are capitalized. (See, however, 441.)

a Gladstone bag	Aristotelian	a Colt thirty-two
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Particles like *de* or *la* in French names, *da* in Italian names, and *von* in German names are not capitalized when the Christian name or a title is used with them ; otherwise they are capitalized. (The usage adopted by the bearer of a name should, of course, be followed regardless of rules.) *Van*, in Dutch names, is usually capitalized. *Mc* is always followed by a capital, and *Mac*, *O*, and *Fitz* may be.

Du Chaillu	Count von Moltke	Leonardo da Vinci
Van Dyke	Macmillan	Percy MacKaye

The abbreviation *Sr.* or *Jr.* after a proper name may be capitalized or not, according to preference.

For titles used with names or instead of names, see 436-438.

**429. Names of Nations, Places, etc.** The individual names of nations, races, countries, cities, rivers, buildings, etc., as well as epithets and nicknames substituted for them, are regularly capitalized.

Great Britain	Malaysia	Cherokee
the Windy City	Chicago	the Mississippi
the White House	Lake Michigan	the East India Docks

Words derived from such names are normally capitalized. (See, however, 441.)

British	Caucasian	Jewish
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**430. Personification.** When words like *nature*, *spring*, *love* are used as if they were personal names, they are capitalized.

"And know you not," says Love, "who bore the blame?"

**431. Scientific Names.** The names of planets, stars, and constellations, of geological periods, and, in biology, the Latin names of genera, families, etc., are regularly capitalized.

Saturn	the Great Dipper	Paleozoic
the genus Iguana	<i>Felis tigris</i>	<i>Vanilla planifolia</i>

Note, however, that the words *sun*, *earth*, *moon*, *equator*, *north pole* are not ordinarily capitalized; nor are familiar names of plants and animals, such as *tiger*, *vanilla*.

**432. Titles of Books, etc.** Titles of books and articles, headings, and the names of newspapers and magazines, documents, works of art, etc. are regularly capitalized (see 426).

<i>Lorna Doone</i>	<i>Diana of the Crossways</i>	"Youth"
the <i>Forum</i>	the <i>Atlantic Monthly</i>	<i>Time</i>
<i>In Memoriam</i>	the Greek Slave (statue)	"Recessional"
the Reform Bill	the Declaration of Independence	

The introductory article (*a*, *an*, or *the*) of a title need not be capitalized unless there is some special reason for quoting the title exactly.

His next magazine he entitled *The Sportsman*.  
You'll find it in the *Sportsman* of last week.

The introductory article of a title is often omitted, especially in footnotes.

*Midsummer Night's Dream*, I, ii.    *Homer's Odyssey*.

**433. Names of Institutions, etc.** The distinguishing names of institutions, organizations, etc., as well as epithets substituted for them, are regularly capitalized.

Dartmouth College	my Alma Mater	the Blue and Gold
the Coast Artillery	the Emporium	the Senate
the American Legion	the National League	the White Sox
the Church of England	the Quakers	the Boy Scouts

For descriptive words used as names of institutions, organizations, etc., see 442.

**434. Names of Periods, Events, etc.** The names of the months and of the days of the week, of historical periods and notable days, and of important events are regularly capitalized.

February	Tuesday	the Middle Ages
the Fourth of July	Good Friday	the World War

Note, however, that the names of the seasons are not capitalized unless they are personified.

**435. Names or Titles of Deity.** Names or titles of the Trinity and of the Virgin Mary are regularly capitalized.

God	Jesus Christ	the Savior
the Holy Ghost	the Son	the Blessed Virgin

Personal pronouns referring to the Deity are sometimes capitalized.

Words sometimes used as titles of Deity are not capitalized when they are used as common nouns.

Wordly success was his only *god*.

It should be noted, too, that whereas *Christian* is capitalized, the word *unchristian* is not.

**436. Titles Used Descriptively.** Titles and the names of offices and relationships held by individuals are common nouns, to be written with small letters, when they are used indefinitely to designate any one of a class.

The *manager* of the football team is always a *senior*.

In England the *bishops* are appointed by the *king*.

The *commanding officer* of our training camp was a *colonel*.

My *uncle* had already sent for a *doctor*.

When such a word is used after a proper name, to designate an office or relationship held, it is also written with a small letter.

Mr. C. J. Smith, *president* of the Chamber of Commerce, presided.

Mrs. Walton, the *mother* of my chum, was chaperon.

**437. Titles Used to Designate Individuals.** When a title or an abbreviation of one is used either as part of a person's name or in direct address, it is capitalized.

*Mr. Chairman*, I rise to a point of order.

Shall I meet *Bishop Lambert* at the station, *Father*?

*Dr. Reynolds* attended *Colonel Jones* throughout his illness.

The letter was addressed to *L. M. Stoddard, Esq.*

When a particular person is designated by his title alone, it is not customary to capitalize the title unless it be one of especial honor. (See 438 and 442.)

The *major* has gone to consult the *colonel* about it.

The *doctor* reported that the *sheriff* was in grave danger.

The *professor* decided to submit the matter to the *president*.

**438. Titles of Especial Honor, etc.** When an individual of especially high rank is designated by his title alone, the title is capitalized.

The address was delivered by the *President* [of the United States].  
The *King* will dedicate the building in person.  
*His Grace*, the *Duke of Bedford*, has gone abroad.

For the same reason the words *Supreme Court*, *Senate*, *Federal*, *Constitution*, etc., are usually capitalized when they refer to the United States as a whole; but otherwise they are not. (Note, however, *unconstitutional*.)

**439. Compass Directions and Localities.** The points of the compass are written with small letters when they indicate direction, with capitals when they designate a specific section of a country or of the world.

From this point our course lay due *east*.  
He had lived all his life in the *East*.

**440. Capitals Emphasizing Definitions, etc.** Technical terms are sometimes capitalized, especially in textbooks, for the sake of emphasis.

The word which completes a transitive verb is the *Direct Object*.

**441. Uncapitalized Derivatives.** Although words derived from proper names are capitalized when they are distinctly associated with their origin (see 428-429), such words lose their capitals when these associations become weak or are altogether lost. Thus, compare a *China rose* with a *china cup*, *Platonic idealism* with *platonic friendship*, an *Oxford crew* with an *oxford shoe*.

Notable examples of words that were once capitalized, but are now written with small letters, follow:

an ampere	an ohm	a volt
india ink	a street arab	paris green
pasteurized milk	a macadamized road	a quixotic idea
tantalize	mesmerize	boycott

**442. Tendency in Capitalization.** The general tendency in English is to do away with the use of capital letters. Capitals are no longer used freely, as they were in an earlier day, merely to emphasize important words in a sentence; and many words derived from proper names, as has been seen (441), have lost their capital letters.

Uncertainty as to the propriety of using capitals arises today chiefly in the case of descriptive words like *company*, *department*, *school*, *class*, *club*, *manager*, *principal*, *executive*, *committee*. Even if a writer has a particular institution or organization in mind, such words, uncapitalized, as *the senior class of the high school* or *the advertising department of the company*, sufficiently indicate what is meant. If there is, however, a special reason for emphasizing individuality, capital letters will accomplish the purpose. Such special emphasis is more appropriate when the circle of readers is intimate than when it is not. Thus, a writer for a school paper might write about what the *Principal*, in consultation with the *Committee on Athletics*, had decided to do about the petition from the *Senior Class*; but a writer for a general newspaper would doubtless write all these italicized words without capitals. The latter practice is by all means the one to be commended. Those who, in cases of doubt, make it a rule to choose small letters in preference to capitals base their practice upon the clear tendency of current usage.

## ITALICIZING

**443. Purpose of Italicizing.** Italic type, indicated in manuscript by a single line underneath a word or word group, has two main purposes: (1) to distinguish from the rest of the text, or (2) to emphasize.

**444. Titles of Books, etc.** Titles of books and the names of magazines and newspapers are usually italicized, quotation marks being reserved for the titles of chapters or other units in a book or magazine (325). The use of italics sometimes helps a reader to distinguish a book or a play from a character in that book or play.

I like *David Copperfield* more than any other book by Dickens.  
I like David Copperfield more than any other of Dickens's characters.

If an article (*a*, *an*, or *the*) introducing a title is not capitalized (432), it is not italicized. Nor is the name of a city, when written before the name of a newspaper, italicized unless it be officially a part of the name.

She is a character in the *Scarlet Letter*, by Hawthorne.  
He read it last night, in the New York *Sun*.

**445. Names of Ships, etc.** Names of ships, boats, airships, etc., are often italicized.

He sails on the *Leviathan* next Saturday.

**446. Words of Resolutions.** For the use of italics with the word *Resolved* in formal resolutions, see 425.

**447. Words as Words.** Words or word groups introduced into a sentence as such (10) are italicized.

In the clause *him howl*, *him* is the subject of the infinitive *howl*.



It should be noted, however, that when a word is introduced as quoted, it should be inclosed in quotation marks.

At the word "distinguished" he lifted his eyebrows significantly.

**448. Foreign Words and Phrases.** Unnaturalized foreign words and phrases, when introduced into an English sentence, are italicized.

He spoke the words *sotto voce*, so that only the Countess heard.

The dictionary distinguishes foreign words that have not been naturalized, like *poilu*, from those that have been, like *dilettante*, either by printing the former in a special type or by some other means.

**449. Words Specially Emphasized.** A writer may indicate that a word or word group would, if spoken, receive special emphasis, by italicizing it. Good writers, on the score of taste, use the device sparingly if they use it at all, depending for emphasis on the words used and on the order in which they are used (374-376). In the representation of speech, however, emphasis by italics may be effective.

"Tell him that he is never, *never* to enter this house again."

**450. Words or Abbreviations in Footnotes, etc.** For Latin words, or the abbreviations of them, in footnotes, see 455 and 472.

## ABBREVIATING

**451. Methods of Abbreviating.** If an abbreviation is not a sign (such as &, \$), it is usually a part of a word followed by a period (like *Co.*, *secy.*). The period, it should be noted, is not used with forms like *3rd*, nor is it usually employed after *Mlle* or *Mme*. The word *Miss*, of course, is not an abbreviation.

The method of abbreviating by using part of a word followed by a period is preferred to that of substituting apostrophes for omitted letters. Thus, *secy.* is preferred to *sec'y*, *bldg.* to *b'ld'g*. Never should both methods be used at once. The apostrophe is appropriate for indicating contractions (8) and words improperly pronounced.

I don't know a more tryin' person.

**452. Styles Affecting Use of Abbreviations.** In formal, or literary, style, the rule is simple: In case of doubt avoid abbreviations.

In informal writing, a moderate use of abbreviations may be appropriate. The more personal the writing is, the more sparingly should abbreviations be used.

In technical writing, especially in footnotes, references, tables, etc., abbreviations are used freely. The dictionary lists accepted abbreviations. For those used in footnotes, etc., see 471-476.

**453. Incorrect Use of Abbreviations.** Abbreviations that are commonly used in combination with words or figures should not be used alone. Contrast, for example, right and wrong use of abbreviations in the following sentences:

**Correct:** Please address it to Room No. 214.

**Incorrect:** My room No. is 214.

**Correct:** He lived in Denver, *Colo.*, four years.

**Incorrect:** He lived in *Colo.* four years.

**Correct:** The train will arrive at 10 : 40 *a.m.*

**Incorrect:** The train will arrive late in the *a.m.*

**454. Capitals in Abbreviations.** In general, abbreviations are capitalized if the words abbreviated would be capitalized; otherwise not. Thus *O.E.D.* (Oxford English Dictionary) and *E.E.T.S.* (Early English Text Society) are capitalized, but *lb.* (pound) and *pro tem.* (*pro tempore*, "temporary") are not.

Several abbreviations require special mention :

B.C. and A.D. are usually written with small capitals.

A.M. and P.M. are written with small capitals or with small letters.

MS. and MSS. (manuscript, manuscripts) are usually written with capitals, but sometimes with small letters.

No. (number) is usually written with a capital N.

C.O.D. is written with capitals, but f.o.b. is written with small letters.

**455. Italics in Abbreviations.** Abbreviations of foreign words are italicized unless they are in very common use. Thus *ab init.* (Latin, "from the beginning") is italicized, but *etc.* is not (except, as here, for a special reason). The following abbreviations are not usually italicized :

cf. ("compare")

e.g. ("for example")

viz. ("namely")

i.e. ("that is")

**456. Titles and Degrees.** It is usually desirable, on the score of politeness, not to abbreviate titles like *President*, *General*, *Captain*, *Reverend*, *Honorable*, *Professor*. In addresses, however, these titles are sometimes abbreviated. The titles *Mr.* and *Mrs.* are always abbreviated, and the word *doctor*, when used as a title, frequently takes the form *Dr.*

It should be noted that whereas such titles as *President* and *General* may be used with the surname only, the titles *Reverend* and *Honorable* or *the Reverend* and *the Honorable* should not be so used. Contrast the following forms:

**Correct:** Reverend C. H. Jones      Rev. C. H. Jones

**Correct:** the Reverend Mr. Jones

**Incorrect:** Reverend Jones      Rev. Jones

After proper names, academic degrees are indicated by abbreviations.

B.A.    Ph.D.    (Note the small *h*.)

D.D.    LL.D.    (Note the two, not three, periods.)

It should be noted that academic titles and degrees are not usually employed together. Such a form as either *Professor E. T. Standish* or *E. T. Standish, Ph.D., Litt.D.* is correct.

## WRITING NUMBERS

**457. Styles Affecting Representation of Numbers.** Numbers may be represented by written words or by figures, either Arabic (1, 5, 10) or roman (I, V, X).

In formal or literary style, numbers are usually written out in words. Even in comparatively formal writing there is advantage, however, in indicating large numbers, especially if several are presented for comparison, by figures.

At that time he had four hundred and fifty sheep.

The last boat came in one minute and forty-nine seconds behind the winner.

Of the 21,413 ballots cast, 12,983 were for Schwartz, 8,301 were for Tobey, and only 129 for Martin.

In informal writing, numbers that can be expressed in one or two words are written out. Longer or more complex numbers are expressed by figures. Note that long page numbers and telephone numbers are not pointed off with commas.

During the twenty-three years he had lived in the town, its population had increased to about 120,000.

Of the entire \$975,500 subscribed, his class had contributed more than forty thousand dollars.

My telephone number is Marston 4328.

In technical writing, short numbers as well as long are appropriately expressed in figures, except at the beginning of a sentence.

The court required 30 yards of gravel and 225 yards of wire netting.

Thirty yards of gravel and 225 yards of wire netting were required for the court.

The use of roman numerals is confined to a few special cases, such as indicating the numbers of volumes or of kings in a series. Such numerals are therefore equally appropriate in formal, informal, and technical writing.

*American Historical Review*, XXV. King Henry VIII.

**458. Sums of Money.** If a sum of money may be expressed in one or two words, it is usually written out; if it be a long or complex sum, it is expressed in figures. When a sum is in dollars but not cents, the writing of .00 is undesirable.

In this way they collected nearly sixteen thousand dollars.

In this way they collected \$15,978.45.

By contributing \$148 himself, he made up the amount.

Sums of less than one dollar and sums written as adjectives are written out.

The hinges cost forty-five cents.

No longer can I buy three-dollar shoes.

When a sum is represented both by words and by figures, as in legal documents, the correct form is as follows:

I promise to pay two hundred dollars (\$200) on . . .

**459. Dates.** In dates, the day of the month is indicated, except in formal style, by figures. The letters *st*, *nd*, etc., after the number are appropriate when the number of the year does not follow; otherwise they are not.

She died on February second, late in the afternoon. [Formal]

She died on February 2, 1918, in Paris.

The year is indicated, except in the most formal style, by figures. When the abbreviations B.C. or A.D. are used, B.C. follows the year number, but A.D. (*anno Domini*, "in the year of Our Lord") properly precedes it.

He was born in 44 B.C. and died A.D. 28.

The number of a century is usually written out. If the circumstances warrant it, the number may be followed by B.C. or, as more appropriate than A.D., by *after Christ* or *of the Christian Era*.

This happened in the seventeenth century.

This happened in the fourth century after Christ.

**460. Times of Day.** In formal style the time of day is indicated by words.

The train left at twenty minutes to nine in the morning.

In colloquial style the method used in railroad time-tables is appropriate.

The train left at 8:40 a.m.

**461. Addresses.** For the representation of numbers in addresses, see 478.

### EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 407-461

Correct mistakes of form in the following sentences:

1. Youll find it discussed in chap. 3 of James Pastons Caricature and other comic art publ. by Harpers in eighteen-seventy-eight.

2. In that never to be forgotten trip to the far east, in the interest of the inter-national Missionary association, Rev. Barber addressed three audiences in as many wks.

3. Inasmuchas the French celebrate the fall of the bastille on July 14, that day may be called their Independence day, just as the fourth of July is ours.

4. Thos. R. Marshall, who served as vicepresident during both Administrations of Woodrow Wilson, was a life long democrat, well-known in the State of Indiana.

5. The City Postoffice now stands on the site of what-used-to-be the old Atlantic hotel, on the 2nd floor of which my fatherin-law's family once lived.

6. The Professor who first stimulated his interest in Anthropology was Dr. Philip T. Bangs, P.H.D., the much quoted authority on the Indians of the south west.

7. In the 4th ed. of his Etymological dictionary, W. W. Skeat L.L.D. groups together words very-different in form (*e.g.* ambition, constable, exit, sudden) so as to bring out their common origin.

8. You can order the fish in 10 lb. packages, F.O.B., N.Y.C., at 22 cents a lb.

9. In that far away anchorage off the North-west corner of the Island of Hawaii our 1000 ton bark, the J. P. Rithet, lay for nearly a fortnight, loading sugar.

10. Though he was most interested in History and Philosophy, Doc. Fallon had to teach English and French (*i.e.* both Composition and Literature in those subjects).

11. Some time I'll tell you how a street Arab, in the Grand Central station, grabbed my gladstone bag, fell with it, and broke all the China that I was carrying in it.

12. Webster's dictionary lists lovable as the accepted form of the word, but also gives loveable as a "Var." (meaning variant). The latter form is current in Brit. usage.

13. The statue to Guy De Maupassant, the well known writer, does not stand in the Latin quarter, as one would suppose, but in the *parc Monceau*, where the Aristocrats live.

14. Prof. Harwood, whom his *alma mater* recently made an LL.D, has spent 32 years, about two-thirds of his life, at the University from which he was graduated.

15. 22 is the number of the st. in which he lives, 111 is his house no., and 5,555 is his telephone number. What a co-incidence!

16. In "The Atlantic Monthly" for Sept. 1929 there is an article in *Contributors' Club* that will amuse you.

17. James Thomas Heflin (often called Tom), United-States senator from Alabama, was, at 23 yrs of age, the youngest Mayor ever elected in the City of Lafayette Alabama.



18. When my parents left the northwest in the Spring of nineteen hundred and twenty three, I went to the *Univ. of So. California* for the summer session.

19. Our High-School Principal was a far seeing man, who would not be drawn into *entangling alliances* with any Fraternal Order.

20. Please send me the following mdse:  $\frac{1}{2}$  doz. cans peaches, one twenty five lb sack pastry flour, 2 bot vanilla ext., 1 3-lb box floor wax.

21. He said that any Amendment to the federal Constitution, after passing congress and the President, had to be ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the states before it became Law.

22. The term *poilu*, a bit of French argot meaning unshaved, was a widely-used nick name applied to the French common-soldier, just as the word Tommy was to the English "private."

23. In as much as every up to date newspaper considers such an expression as "Esteemed Contemporary" old-fashioned, you will not find this term used by anyone of our journals today.

24. It is now 4 weeks since I sent him a follow up letter addressed to 21 west One-hundred-and-tenth St., but up-to-date I have received no reply.

25. It was bishop Stevens who explained to me how the african savages interpreted the Christian God in terms of their own miracle working Heathen Divinities.

## PARAGRAPHING

**462. The Purpose of Paragraphing.** Good paragraphing presupposes a whole made up of distinctly separate parts. It enables a reader to see at a glance where one part ends and another begins.

**463. Form of the Paragraph.** The normal paragraph is formed by indenting the first line about one quarter of an inch in type, one inch in handwritten copy. If the last sentence of the paragraph does not completely fill a line, the remainder of the line is left blank. This paragraph illustrates the normal paragraph form.

Another form of paragraph, often used in typed letters, has no indention in the first line, but each paragraph is separated from the next by an extra line space. This paragraph illustrates the form.

A third type of paragraph, most frequently used in outlining, has the first line extending to the margin and all the other lines indented equally. This paragraph illustrates the form. Many sentences used as examples in this book extend beyond one line and are indented according to the same principle.

**464. Length of the Paragraph.** Unless a paragraph represents speech (465-466), its length depends, naturally, upon the subject matter being presented. In practice, paragraphs usually range in length from fifty words to two or three hundred words. Sometimes a sentence worthy of very special emphasis is appropriately written as a single paragraph.

**465. Paragraphing of Direct Quotation.** When a direct quotation, whether representing spoken words or copied

material, interrupts continuous discourse, it is ordinarily separated from what precedes and follows by paragraphing. A short and casual speech, however, or only a few words of copied material need not be thus separated.

**466. Paragraphing of Dialogue.** When conversation is represented, each speech, together with any introductory or interrupting words, is given a paragraph to itself. For an example, see 322.

If a long introductory passage, however, leads to a quotation that ends the sentence, the introduction may be paragraphed separately.

At this point Aunt Sarah raised her head, glanced suspiciously at us, and adjusting her ear-trumpet said politely,

“Will you please repeat that?”

## INDICATING SOURCES

**467. Purpose of Indicating Sources.** When a writer uses a quotation or bases a statement upon source material of any kind, he should indicate what that source is. One reason for so doing is to satisfy the reader's natural curiosity. Another is to show that a statement is based upon a reliable authority. Still another is to give an interested reader the opportunity, if he should so desire, to look up for himself and to verify the source material used. For all these reasons, references should be cited accurately and with sufficient detail. By following fixed forms, the writer may present his information briefly, yet clearly.

In order to have copy for his references instantly available, a writer should, whenever he uses source material, indicate accurately, and in the proper form, the place in which he finds it. For this purpose the use of suitable cards is highly to be recommended.

**468. Methods of Indicating Sources.** One method of indicating sources is to place at the end of the paper a bibliography, or list of books consulted. Another is to indicate the source of each quotation or statement within parentheses in the body of the text. An alternative to this latter method, and a generally preferred one, is to use footnotes. In elaborate papers both footnotes and a bibliography are desirable.

**469. Bibliographies.** A bibliography consists of a list of all the sources — books, magazines, etc. — consulted during the preparation of the paper. It may include, as well, other works related to the subject. Specific references to passages, pages, or lines are not usually given. The items in a bibliography should be grouped according to an appropriate plan.

**470. Indicating Books.** When a book is to be indicated, every piece of information necessary for identifying it should be given. The accepted order for the units of information is as follows: (1) author; (2) title (perhaps with edition); (3) place and publisher; (4) date. The title of the book should be italicized (444), the other items being written in ordinary type or script. Circumstances sometimes justify omitting the name of the publisher, the author's name (if the book is well known), or some other item.

Of the different systems of punctuation used, a simple one is to place a period after each unit as indicated above and a comma between parts of a single unit.

Besant, Walter. *Fifty Years Ago*, 2nd ed. London, Chatto & Windus. 1892.

Foerster, Norman, ed. *Humanism and America*. New York, Farrar & Rinehart. 1930.

*The Encyclopædia Britannica*, 14th ed. London and New York, 1929.

**471. Indicating Passages in Books.** When a portion of a book is to be indicated, the title of the chapter or article, in quotation marks, should precede that of the book.

Gosse, E. "Impression," in *Types of Poetry*, ed. by H. J. Hall, p. 642. Boston, Ginn and Company. 1927.

When it is desired to indicate a particular passage in a book, the necessary information should follow that which indicates the book itself. The following abbreviations are among those used:

vol. (volume)      bk. (book)      ch. (chapter)      p. (page)

Volume numbers are indicated by large roman numerals, book numbers by small roman numerals, and page numbers by Arabic numerals. When volume and page numbers alone are to be indicated, the numerals are sufficient; thus, *Cambridge Modern History*, IX, 342.

If the passage referred to covers a definite number of pages, the abbreviation *pp.* ("pages") is used; thus, *pp. 210-213*. If the passage beginning on one page ends on the next, the abbreviation *f.* ("following") is used; thus, *210 f.* If the passage beginning on a certain page fills more than one following page, the abbreviation *ff.* (plural of "following") is used; thus, *210 ff.*

Items of information given in the text of an article need not be repeated within parentheses or in footnotes.

It is the opinion of Mr. Barrett H. Clark (*Continental Drama of Today*, 1914, p. 127) that . . .

The subject is further discussed in *Continental Drama of Today*,<sup>1</sup> where the opinion is expressed that . . .

<sup>1</sup> Barrett H. Clark, 1914, 213 ff.

**472. Footnotes.** A footnote reference is indicated by an index number in the text, corresponding to the index number preceding the footnote at the bottom of the page. Although footnotes may be numbered consecutively throughout an article, it is often found more convenient to begin a new series of numbers with each new page.

In the final form of an article, all the footnotes referred to on a given page appear at the bottom of that page. When, however, a writer who is preparing an article has occasion to make a footnote reference, he usually places his reference on a separate line immediately below the line of text to which it refers, drawing lines across the page both above and below the reference. Later, when the article is being put into its final form, the text of a given page and the footnotes belonging to that page are appropriately separated.

It is the opinion of Mr. Barrett H. Clark<sup>1</sup> that the influence

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<sup>1</sup> *Continental Drama of Today*, 1914, p. 127.

---

of the French drama is not . . .

If the same book is referred to two or more times consecutively, the use of the abbreviation *ibid.* (*ibidem*, "in the same place") identifies the book without the necessity of repeating name and title. Thus, three consecutive footnotes might take the following form :

Cambridge Modern History, IV, 87.

*Ibid.*, XII, 513-521.

*Ibid.*, XV, 212 ff.

If a given book by a given author is referred to in the text, and then, after another reference has been given, the first book is again referred to by its author's name, it may be identified by the abbreviation *op. cit.* (*opere citato*, "in the work cited"). Thus, three consecutive footnotes might take the following form, if Mr. Chambers is mentioned in the text by name in connection with the third footnote :

Robert Chambers, *Book of Days*, I, 189.

Wm. C. Hazlitt, *Faiths and Folklore*, II, 26-31.

*Op. cit.*, II, 312 ff.

Similarly, the abbreviation *loc. cit.* (*loco citato*, "in the place cited") may be used to indicate a passage that has been already referred to and is now again brought up for reference.

**473. References to Magazine Articles.** Articles in magazines or periodicals may be referred to by volume and page numbers. The date on which the article appeared may be added at will. For italics and quotation marks, see 325.

S. Todd, "The Future of American Business," *Round Table*, CLXI, 129-138.

*Round Table*, CLXI, 129-138 (July, 1930).

**474. References to Plays.** In references to plays, the use of the words *act*, *scene*, and *line* (or of their abbreviations) is unnecessary if the act is indicated by a large roman nu-

meral, the scene by a small roman numeral, and the line or lines by Arabic numerals.

*Julius Cæsar*, Act III, sc. ii.

*Hamlet*, I, ii, 7-9.

**475. References to Poems.** In references to poems, the abbreviations *bk.* (book), *pt.* (part), *st.* (stanza), *l.* (line), and *ll.* (lines) may be used as required.

*Rime of the Ancient Mariner*, Pt. IV, st. 5.

Burns, R., *Tam o' Shanter*, ll. 17-31.

**476. References to the Bible.** In references to the Bible, abbreviations for chapter and verse are unnecessary if the chapter is indicated by small roman numerals and the verse by Arabic numerals. Large roman numerals are placed before the name of the book if there are two books of the same name.

*Psalms*, xxiii, 4.

II *Corinthians*, vii, 2-6.

#### EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 467-476

Write, in proper form, footnote references, making appropriate use of the information given.

1. Title: The Age of Tennyson. Author: Hugh Walker. Place: London. Publisher: George Bell and Sons. Date: 1904. Pages: forty-three to fifty-one.

2. Page one hundred and eleven of the book indicated just above, detailed reference to which has been given in the preceding footnote.

3. Work: The Encyclopædia Britannica. Edition: fourteenth. Volume: twenty-two. Page: sixty-seven.

4. Magazine: National Geographic Magazine. Article: The Eagle in Action. Volume: fifty-five. Pages: 635 to 660. Date: May, 1929.



5. Title: *Life of Samuel Johnson*. Author: James Boswell. Editor, Herbert Vaughan Abbott. Place: Chicago. Publisher: Scott, Foresman and Company. Date: 1923. Page: fifty-two.

6. Page 110 of the book indicated just above, the title of which, *Life of Samuel Johnson*, is mentioned in the body of the text.

7. Page 110 of the same book, the name of whose editor, Herbert Vaughan Abbott, is mentioned in the body of the text.

8. The same book, pages sixty-six and those following. The last footnote but one has been a reference giving full information about the book. In the body of the text the author's name is again mentioned.

9. Passage: one that has been already referred to in a footnote on the preceding page of the same article. Lines: twenty-three to twenty-eight. In the body of the text, the passage that has already been discussed is now referred to once again.

10. Title of book: *Representative Essays, English and American*. Editor: J. R. Moore. Place: Boston. Publisher: Ginn and Company. Date: 1930. Title of essay in the book: *A Cure for Fits in Married Ladies*. Author of essay: Richard Steele. Pages: twenty-six to twenty-eight.

11. Title: *The Tragedie of Macbeth*. Editor: Mark H. Liddell. Place: New York. Publisher: Doubleday, Page & Company. Date: 1903. Note: twenty-two on page forty-four.

12. Title of book: *Plays*. Author: Molière. Volume: two. Translator: C. H. Page. Place: New York. Publisher: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Date: 1908. Title of play in the book: *The Learned Ladies*. Act: two. Scene: six. Lines: one to thirty-six.

13. Title: *The Odyssey of Homer*. Translator: S. H. Butcher and A. Lang. Series: *The Harvard Classics*. Volume: twenty-two. Place: New York. Publisher: P. F. Collier & Son. Date: 1909. Pages: ninety-four to one hundred and three. In the body of the text one episode of the story, book seven, has been indicated.

14. Title: *Pippa Passes*. Author: Browning. Division: Part 3. EVENING. Lines: four to fifteen.

15. Book of Bible: *Thessalonians*. Number of Epistle: two. Chapter: two. Verses: thirteen to seventeen.

## FORM IN LETTERS

**477. Purpose of Form in Letters.** The requirements of good form in letter-writing may seem at first arbitrary as well as exacting. Closer study shows that there is for some of them a very practical purpose. The address in the heading, for example, is there to be used when the letter is answered. Again, since copies of business letters are usually kept on file, the inside address preceding the salutation is always ready to be used should later occasion for writing arise. Other requirements of form express courtesy and good breeding. A letter is an expression of individuality, often the only one by which a writer may be judged; and if he wishes to be judged favorably, he must show that he knows the forms established by good usage.

The technical problems of the personal letter of friendship will be dealt with first, and those of the business letter later. The two types, of course, have much in common. The problems of the formal invitation and of the answer to it will be dealt with last of all.

The most useful method of study is to impress upon the mind such concrete examples of good form as are given in the text, considering each detail in the light of the reason for it.

**478. The Personal Letter: Address and Date.** The address of the writer, followed by the date, is usually placed at the head of the letter, near the right-hand margin. Sometimes the date alone is placed at the head, the address being placed below and to the left of the signature at the end of the letter. If the address is engraved on the letter-paper, only the date need be written.

The address should contain all the information necessary for the sending of a reply. Thus, if one writes from a small town, the names of the town and the state alone are necessary; if one writes from a city, the street address should be added. If the writer's address is well known to the recipient, it may, by exception, be omitted, or some such phrase as *At home* or *In the garden* may be substituted.

If the address is short, both address and date may be written on one line. Otherwise the address is given a line or more to itself, the date following on a separate line. Never should the last part of the address be placed on the same line with the date.

House and long street numbers should be expressed in Arabic numerals. Arabic numerals are also used, preferably without *nd*, *st*, etc., after the day of the month. Abbreviations of words are not appropriate, and such forms as 2/4/29, expressing dates, are especially to be avoided.

If two or more lines are required for the address and date, each line may have the same indentation, or each may be indented a quarter of an inch more than the preceding line.

The punctuation of the address and date may be studied in the examples. Note that punctuation may be either "closed," with marks at the end of each line, or "open," without marks at the end.

Kellogg, Idaho, June 4, 1929

14 State Street, Orange, N. J.,  
December 21, 1932.

R. F. D. 2, Los Altos, California  
April 23, 1927

221 First Avenue,  
Denver, Colorado,  
May 7, 1931.

32 East 45th Street  
Harrisburg, Pennsylvania  
July 9, 1930

**479. The Personal Letter: Salutation.** In a formal personal letter, the salutation is appropriately preceded, as in a business letter, by an inside address (484); but in an informal letter, the salutation alone is used. It begins at the left-hand margin, two lines or so lower than the date.

The nature of the salutation depends upon the intimacy of the correspondents. If a title (like *Mr.*, *Doctor*, *Colonel*) is used in personal speech, it should be used also in the salutation. If the Christian name or some nickname is used in speech, it is appropriate in a letter.

The name should be preceded by *My dear* or *Dear*. The use of the name alone is in bad taste. The shorter *Dear* implies greater intimacy than *My dear*. Note that after *My*, *dear* is not capitalized. Abbreviations in titles (except *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*, or perhaps *Dr.*) are not appropriate (456).

After the name, either the comma or the colon should be used — never the semicolon.

*My dear Professor Wylie:*

*My dear Mr. Lawrence,*

*Dear Uncle Charles:*

*Dear old Bob,*

*My dear Mrs. Jones:*

*My dear Miss Iglehart,*

*Dear Miss Nancy:*

*Dear Ethel,*

**480. The Personal Letter: Body.** The first word of the body of a letter should be capitalized and should be indented as much as the other paragraphs are (463), but no more.

The style should be natural and easy, like that of personal speech. Abbreviations are usually to be avoided as lacking in politeness. For the same reason it is not desirable to shorten sentences by omitting pronouns, prepositions, etc. (365).

**481. The Personal Letter: Complimentary Close.** The complimentary close of a personal letter today usually consists of an appropriate adverb like *sincerely*, *faithfully*, *cordially*, or *affectionately*, usually in combination with *yours*. *Respectfully* is sometimes appropriate. Such words as *most*, *very*, or *ever* may be used, but they are often felt to weaken rather than strengthen the force of the adverb. In intimate letters, the complimentary close is sometimes omitted.

The complimentary close is written on a line by itself just below the last line of the body, is indented about half the width of the line, and is followed by a comma. A complimentary close of one word is capitalized; but if the close consists of more than one word, only the first is capitalized.

The formula beginning with *Hoping that* or *Trusting that* and ending with *believe me* or *I remain* is usually avoided, on the ground that it is monotonously stiff and formal. When it is used, it appears in the body of the letter before the line devoted to the complimentary close.

Abbreviations, such as *yrs.* or *aff'ly*, are singularly out of place in the complimentary close of a letter.

Sincerely,

Yours sincerely,

Sincerely yours,

Faithfully yours,

Affectionately,

Yours faithfully,

Cordially,

Cordially yours,

**482. The Personal Letter: Signature.** The signature proper to a personal letter depends upon the relationship between the correspondents. If the recipient of the letter calls the writer by a title, such as *Mr.*, *Doctor*, *Colonel*, the writer signs his full name or such form of it as he has adopted

for his signature. If the recipient calls the writer by his first name, the writer may express intimacy by using his first name as a signature. The use of initials implies a relationship of easy familiarity.

Since a writer should never use a title before his signature or initials representing degrees after it, such forms as *Mrs. Charles Strong*, *Mrs. Strong*, *Dr. Thorne*, or *James Fenwick, Ph. D.* imply a lack of breeding. For the ways in which a woman may indicate her status to a stranger, see 488.

The signature should always be written by hand, on a line by itself below the complimentary close; it should be indented deeper than the complimentary close (481).

Henry Temple Cook

Marie Stowe Halliwell

Henry T. Cook

Marie Halliwell

Henry

Marie

**483. The Business Letter: Address and Date.** The rules for the address and date of a business letter are the same as those for a personal letter (478).

**484. The Business Letter: Inside Address.** The inside address of a business letter, standing usually at the head of the letter but sometimes at the foot of it, to the left, consists usually of the title and name of the recipient on one line and his address on one or two lines, as the circumstances require. The street address need not always be written. Sometimes the official position of the recipient, or the organization which he represents, is indicated on a separate line between the name and the address. If the recipient is an organization, and the letter is for the attention of some designated representative, the facts are set forth by a method shown among the examples (485).

Some title, like *Mr.*, *Doctor*, *President* before the name or *Esquire* after it, should always accompany the name of an individual. The title *Messrs.* is appropriate when the name of a firm consists of the names of two or more men or of persons of both sexes. In the writing of titles and names of firms, abbreviations (except *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*, and perhaps *Dr.*) are not desirable (456).

The first line of the inside address is not indented. The other line or lines may be written flush with the first, or may be indented, each line a little more than the one preceding. The punctuation system, whether "open" or "closed," should be the same as that used in the address and date at the head of the letter (478). Abbreviations in the address may be used, if they are used sparingly.

For examples of the inside address and salutation, see 485.

**485. The Business Letter: Salutation.** If the letter is formal, the salutation is impersonal. In a letter addressed to a man, *Sir* is sufficient as a salutation, though *My dear Sir* or *Dear Sir* may be preferred as somewhat less formal. *My dear Madam* or *Dear Madam* may be used in addressing any woman, married or unmarried.

If the recipient is a person well known to the writer, the name is used in the salutation as well as in the inside address; thus, *My dear Mrs. Fulton* or *Dear Major Pratt*.

If the letter is addressed to a firm, *Gentlemen* is the appropriate salutation; *Dear Sirs* is sometimes used. If the firm is composed of women, *Mesdames* or *Ladies* should be used.

The salutation occupies a line by itself below the inside address, unless the inside address appears at the foot of the letter (484). It is not indented; and if the inside address is written without indentation, the salutation is separated from it by an extra space. The colon or, if preferred, the comma should follow the salutation.

Examples of inside addresses followed by appropriate salutations follow:

Miss Helen D. Paton,  
Red Oak, Iowa.

Dear Madam:

Messrs. Ripley and Clarke  
811 Government St.  
Victoria, B.C.

Gentlemen:

Ginn and Company,  
Boston, Massachusetts.

Gentlemen:

Mr. Hiram T. Bridges  
Superintendent of Schools  
Louisville, Kentucky

My dear Mr. Bridges:

The Austin Company,  
1116 Euclid Avenue,  
Cleveland, Ohio.

Attention of Mr. S. R. Street.

Gentlemen:

**486. The Business Letter: Body.** The same principles that apply to the body of the personal letter (480) apply also to the body of the business letter.

In good business letters today, stereotyped expressions like the following are carefully avoided:

Yours of the 13th inst. received and contents noted

in reply would say  
your esteemed favor  
beg to advise

in reply to the same  
your valued order  
thanking you in advance

**487. The Business Letter: Complimentary Close.** The complimentary close of a business letter and that of a personal letter (481) are governed by the same rules, except that adverbs like *cordially*, expressing intimacy, are not likely to be in place, a more formal adverb like *truly* or *sincerely* being as a rule more appropriate. Such expressions as *Yours for service* are not in good taste.

Yours truly,  
Truly yours,  
Very truly yours,

Yours sincerely,  
Sincerely yours,  
Yours respectfully,



**488. The Business Letter: Signature.** The form adopted by an individual as his official signature is the one appropriate for a business letter. It is placed as it is in a personal letter.

An unmarried woman, writing to a stranger, should inclose the word *Miss* in parentheses before her signature, and a widow should similarly inclose the word *Mrs.* A married woman should inclose in parentheses underneath her signature her husband's name and initials preceded by *Mrs.* If she is in business for herself, or is employed by a firm in which her husband is not concerned, she should inclose merely *Mrs.* within parentheses before her signature.

Allan D. White  
(Miss) Mary Elizabeth Cross  
(Mrs.) Sarah G. Lamson

Bertha Stewart Jenkins  
(Mrs. Henry K. Jenkins)

In typed letters it is appropriate to have the writer's name typed below the signature written by hand. In dictated letters the writer's initials and the initials of the typist, separated by a stroke (/), are placed to the left of the signature, flush with the margin.

If the letter is one for which a firm is responsible, the name of the firm should be typed, and below it the name of the writer should be written by hand. The official capacity of the writer, typed, may be added beneath his signature. If the letter is one for which an individual in a firm is responsible, his personal signature, written by hand, comes first, and the name of his firm, typed, follows.

The Austin Company

*John H. Brown*

Secretary

*John H. Brown*

The Austin Company

**489. Formal Invitations.** Formal invitations and answers to them are written in the third person by hand. The conventional forms appropriate for them may be studied in the examples that follow. Note that the reply follows the formula of the invitation.

*Mrs. Wilton Smith requests the pleasure of Mr. Howard Lonsdale's company at dinner on Wednesday, September the fifth, at half past seven o'clock, at 125 Ralston Avenue.*

*Mr. Howard Lonsdale accepts with pleasure Mrs. Wilton Smith's invitation to dinner on September the fifth, at half past seven o'clock.*

*Mr. Howard Lonsdale regrets that, on account of illness, he is unable to accept Mrs. Wilton Smith's invitation to dinner on September the fifth, at half past seven o'clock.*

Note that abbreviations (except *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*) are not used, and that dates are written out in words. Since one accepts or declines an invitation at the time of writing, the tense of the verb *accept* or *regret* is present, not future.

**490. Writing Paper.** Personal letters are usually written on folded paper, four pages to the sheet. Margins on both sides of the page, as well as at top and at bottom, add much to the appearance of a letter. For the convenience of the reader, the lines of writing on every page should be in the same direction. A letter of not more than two pages may be written on pages 1 and 3. In a longer letter the pages should be used in their consecutive order — 1, 2, 3, 4. Pages thus used need not be numbered; but if a letter re-

quires more than one sheet of four pages, each sheet should be numbered at the top of its first page.

Business letters are usually written on large unfolded sheets. If the letter requires more than one page, it is considered better to use one side only of separate sheets than it is to use both sides of the same sheet. Ample margins are always desirable. A small amount of writing on a large page makes the best appearance when the writing appears as a block near the center of the paper.

**491. The Envelope.** The paper should be neatly folded once, twice, or three times according to the circumstances, and should be so placed in the envelope that the one receiving the letter may take it out and unfold it for reading with the greatest possible ease. Paper folded once should be placed in the envelope with the fold at the bottom and with the top of the first page facing the back of the envelope. Letters folded twice, first up from the bottom and then down from the top, should be placed in the envelope with the top of the first page pointing downward next to the back of the envelope. Letters written on large single sheets, requiring to be folded three times, once in the direction of the written lines and twice in a direction vertical to them, should be placed in the envelope with the two folded flaps next to the back of the envelope, the exposed flap pointing up.

The address on the envelope should be so complete that the postman need have no difficulty in delivering the letter. The words *In care of*, when used, should be written in full.

Miss Lucille Templeton  
In care of Dr. J. C. Winthrop  
435 Furbush Road  
Phoenix  
Arizona

## EXERCISES ON SECTIONS 477-491

Write, in correct form, and insert in properly addressed envelopes, the following letters :

1. An informal personal letter from James Heard, living at Granite, Colorado, writing on the second day of May, 1931, to his uncle, William Heard, living at number twelve, on East Thirty-seventh Street, New York City, thanking him for a subscription to *Time*, the weekly newspaper.

2. An informal personal letter from Oscar T. Brewer, living at number seventy-four, on Crescent Drive, Hollywood, California ("open" punctuation), writing on the ninth day of March, 1931, to Alice T. Brown (whom he has known intimately since childhood), wife of Henry J. Brown, living at Red Oak, Iowa, acknowledging the receipt of her daughter's address and promising to call upon her.

3. A formal business letter from Hannah A. Wilton, widow of Joel M. Wilton, staying at "The Willows," Kennebunkport, Maine, writing on the second day of June, 1930, to the Postmaster, Maplewood, New Jersey, asking to have the mail that comes addressed to her permanent residence, number twelve, Hammond Place, Maplewood, forwarded until further notice to her present summer address.

4. A formal business letter from Mary Shortridge, unmarried, living at number twenty-two, on Dempster Street, Evanston, Illinois ("closed" punctuation), writing on the tenth day of April, 1932, to the firm of Lester and Murdock, both women, of Michigan Avenue, number thirty-five, Chicago, Illinois, asking at what time the curtains ordered for her house may be expected.

5. A formal business letter on official addressed stationery, from Randolph C. Boone, Superintendent of Schools, Omaha, Nebraska, writing on the nineteenth day of May, 1931, to George T. Rockwell, Registrar, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska, requesting a general bulletin of information concerning the university.

6. A formal business letter from Myron Y. Temple, of Santa Clara, California, writing on the eleventh day of October, 1930, to

Sherman, Clay and Company, Kearney and Sutter Streets, San Francisco, California (attention of William M. Allen), asking him why the piano stool had not been sent with the piano that had been received two days before.

7. A reply to the letter indicated just above, written on official addressed stationery, in the name of the firm, and signed by Mr. Allen, manager of the piano department, acknowledging the receipt of the inquiry and promising that the piano stool will be sent at once.

8. A formal business letter from Gladys B. Oates, wife of Mr. Samuel C. Oates, living at number thirty-three, on Blair Street, Ithaca, New York, writing on January the third, 1931, to the office of the Cunard Line, on Broadway, number twenty-eight, New York City, requesting information about steamship accommodation (with dates, prices, etc.) out of New York within the last two weeks of June, 1931.

9. A formal invitation from Miss Clara C. Nutter, living in Canal Street, number twelve hundred and thirty, inviting Miss Helen Gray, living in South Carrollton Avenue, number two hundred and ten, to luncheon on the sixteenth day of May, at one o'clock.

10. An acceptance of the invitation indicated just above.

## FORM IN COMPOSITIONS

**492. Purpose of Form in Compositions.** Good form in a composition enables the reader (1) to grasp its contents without unnecessary effort, (2) to correct it easily, and (3) to handle it conveniently. The directions that follow are given with these three objects in mind. Individual instructors may, of course, have reason for modifying them in certain particulars.

**493. Paper.** The paper to be used should be of standard size,  $8\frac{1}{2} \times 11$  inches. Only one side of a sheet should be used. Each page should be numbered at the top in Arabic numerals.

**494. Title.** The title, each important word of which should be capitalized (426), should stand about two inches below the top of the page. The first line of the text should stand about an inch below the title.

**495. Margins.** A margin of at least an inch and a half should be kept at the left-hand side of each sheet. Since the margin is for the convenience of the instructor in making comments and corrections, it should never be used by the student for making alterations in a manuscript before it is handed in.

**496. Spacing.** The units of a manuscript should be so spaced that reading is easy. The letters of a word should not be separated, nor should consecutive words be crowded together. The space between sentences should be double that between words.

In typewritten copy, lines should be double spaced. In copy written by hand, the space between lines should at least equal the height of the manuscript words. Some

writers may find it advisable to use alternate lines of ruled paper.

**497. Alterations.** Words or word groups to be inserted in a manuscript should be written clearly above the line, their place in the copy being indicated by a caret (^). If a word group is to be inserted in one line, every word of the group should stand above that line. If a word or word group is to be erased, a single horizontal line should be drawn through it.

If a word or word group is to be transposed, it should be erased in one place and inserted in another by the methods indicated above.

**498. Folding Manuscript.** Manuscripts should be folded according to the directions of the instructor. Many instructors think that a manuscript folded once in the direction of the written lines is more convenient to handle than one folded vertically. It is also easier to read, since only one line is affected by the crease made in folding.

**499. Indorsing Manuscript.** If a manuscript is to be indorsed, the method suggested by the instructor should be strictly followed. A convenient place for the indorsement is at the upper right-hand corner, toward the folded edge. When an instructor wishes to take one paper from a handful of papers, he naturally holds all the papers in his left hand, and selects with his right hand the one desired. If the folded edges are on the right, each paper may be handled as a unit, regardless of the number of pages it may contain.

In order that a paper, indorsed toward the folded edge, shall open right side up instead of upside down, the correct choice of corners should be made; for a folded manuscript may be indorsed in two places, each an upper right-hand corner toward the folded edge. The simplest way of choosing correctly is to fold the paper from the top down, and to write on the side that is then on top.

The indorsement usually should contain (1) the writer's name, (2) the name of the course, (3) the date on which the assignment is due, and (4) the title of the paper.

John J. Spender  
English 1 b  
October 7, 1930  
Safety Devices for Airplanes

If a paper is late but nevertheless acceptable, there is advantage in having it dated as if it had been handed in on time. The instructor then knows at once where it should be recorded in his book. The date on which the paper is actually handed in may be written underneath the usual indorsement. An added statement of reasons for the lateness of the paper may prove useful as a reminder.

John J. Spender  
English 1 b  
October 7, 1930  
Safety Devices for Airplanes

October 12, 1930  
In Infirmary Oct. 4-9. Lv. abs.

O.K., L.



## FORM IN OUTLINES

**500. Purpose of the Outline.** The outline serves a useful purpose both to the reader of a paper and to the writer. To the reader the completed outline gives a preliminary bird's-eye view of what he is about to read. The writer, in preparing the outline, solves important problems of method and order before he begins the actual writing of his paper.

If composition be thought of, as it very properly may, as the thinking that is done before writing, — the choosing, that is, of the material that belongs to the subject and the rejecting of that which does not, the arranging of the parts according to a systematic, consistent plan, and the appropriate proportioning of those parts, — then the preparation of an outline involves all the constructive problems of composition.

**501. Prerequisites of a Good Outline.** A good outline presupposes a subject so definitely conceived and so limited in scope that it can be treated adequately in the space at command. It implies, further, some appropriate principle of organization that can be applied consistently throughout the paper. It requires, finally, a sense of the relative importance of the parts that make up the whole.

**502. Arrangement of the Outline.** The outline should have a certain number of main heads, so arranged that a perusal of them will show at a glance the principle of organization which has been adopted.

If the scope of the subject demands it, some of the main heads, or all of them, will have subheads, similarly arranged according to a systematic plan. In elaborate papers these subheads will themselves have subheads of still lower rank, and so on until further subdivision is unnecessary.

Though it is always appropriate to have two or more subheads under a head, it is usually undesirable to have but one subhead so placed. The better practice is to join head and subhead together.

- Desirable:** 1. The crawl stroke  
a. advantages  
b. disadvantages

- Undesirable:** 1. The crawl stroke  
a. advantages

- Desirable:** 1. The crawl stroke: advantages

**503. Phrasing Heads.** Heads may be phrased in titles (507), in sentences (508), or in titles that form sentences (509).

Since the function of every head in a series should be coordinate with that of every other head in the series, the form in which the heads are expressed should be consistent. (Compare the principle of parallel construction in the sentence, 90-94.)

**504. Indenting Heads.** All heads should be so placed on the page that the reader may see at a glance the relation that each bears to the others. In manuscript written by hand the indentation should be, as is indicated below, fairly deep. In typed or printed copy (see 507) it may be relatively shallow.

Every main head should begin at or very near the left-hand margin. If the head requires more than one line, the second line, and others if necessary, should be indented a quarter of an inch more than the first. This system of indenting paragraphs (463) should be applied as well to subheads of any rank.

Each subhead under a main head should be indented about one inch. Each subhead under one of these subheads should be indented about two inches. The principle of giving deeper indentation to each set of subheads having lower rank may be further applied as the occasion requires.

**505. Numbering and Lettering Heads.** If each of the various heads of the outline is numbered or lettered according to its rank and position, the organization of the outline is still further emphasized. A convenient system of notation follows:

Roman numerals — I, II, etc. — indicate main heads.

Small letters — a, b, etc. — indicate subheads.

Arabic numerals — 1, 2, etc. — indicate subheads of lower rank.

Small letters in parentheses — (a), (b), etc. — indicate subheads of still lower rank.

If the outline is so elaborately organized as to justify division into introduction, body, and conclusion, the main heads of the entire outline should not be numbered consecutively. Instead, the main heads of the introduction should be numbered I, II, etc.; the main heads of the body should have a separate series of numbers, I, II, etc.; and the main heads of the conclusion should have still another separate series.

For illustrations of the foregoing system of numbering and lettering, see 507-509. Note that numerals should be so spaced that the last numeral, not the first, should be in alignment; thus,

I.	8.
II.	9.
III.	10.

**506. Testing the Outline.** After an outline has been constructed, it may be tested by asking a series of questions, as follows:

1. Is the sum of all the main heads of the outline equal, no more and no less, to the subject as indicated by the title? (If the outline is divided into introduction, body, and conclusion, the main heads of the body should be equal, in their sum, to the subject indicated by the title. The introduction

and conclusion should be separately tested to see whether they similarly fulfil their respective purposes.)

2. Are the main heads of the outline arranged according to some clearly perceived system?

3. Is the sum of all the subheads under a main head equal to the subject indicated by that main head? And are the subheads systematically arranged? (The same questions should be asked of each set of subheads under each main head.)

4. The same questions should be asked of each set of subheads that is subordinate to a subhead of next higher rank, until the entire outline is tested.

### 507. Example of a Topic Outline

#### MUNICIPAL ORGANIZATION IN -----

- I. The City
  - a. situation
  - b. size and growth
  - c. character
    - 1. residential suburb
    - 2. educational center
      - (a) university
      - (b) schools, public and private
- II. The Charter
  - a. when
  - b. why
- III. The Council (unpaid)
  - a. size of
  - b. election of
  - c. organization of
    - 1. chairman (mayor), elected by fellow members
    - 2. secretary (city clerk), appointed by board
    - 3. committees (finance, ways and means, etc.), appointed by mayor from members of Council
  - d. duties of
    - 1. legislative: to enact ordinances

## 2. executive

- (a) to apportion budget
- (b) to approve important expenditures
- (c) to appoint executive boards (unpaid)
  - (1) board of works
  - (2) board of safety
  - (3) planning commission
  - (4) library boardetc.
- (d) to appoint city officers (paid)
  - (1) attorney
  - (2) clerk
  - (3) tax-collectoretc.

## IV. The Board of Works

- a. organization of
- b. executive officers: engineer, etc.
- c. duties
  - 1. to administer utilities
  - 2. to care for streets, parks, public buildings, etc.

## V. The Board of Safety: Departments

- a. police department
  - 1. officers
  - 2. equipment
  - 3. duties
- b. fire department
  - 1. officers
  - 2. equipment
  - 3. duties
- c. health department
  - 1. officers
  - 2. equipment
  - 3. duties

## VI. The Planning Commission

- a. organization of
  - 1. officers
  - 2. committees
- b. duties of

- VII. The Library Board
  - a. officers
  - b. equipment
  - c. duties
- VIII. Advantages and Disadvantages of System
  - a. advantages
    - 1. expert services available
      - (a) on the council
      - (b) on the boards
    - 2. savings in cost
      - (a) council members unpaid
      - (b) board members unpaid
  - b. disadvantages
    - 1. increasing drain on time of executives
    - 2. increasing need of whole-time professional director
  - c. final estimate
    - 1. system adequate for conditions in the past
    - 2. system inadequate for conditions in the future

### 508. Example of a Sentence Outline

#### THE REMEDY FOR UNEMPLOYMENT

- I. The problem of unemployment, always a serious one, is becoming rapidly more serious.
- II. Unemployment is caused not alone by sporadic overproduction but by constant improvements in machinery and in the technique of business administration.
- III. The problem, therefore, is bound to become progressively worse until adequate measures are taken to solve it.
- IV. Local remedies, such as the undertaking of construction work, will not solve the problem.
- V. So radical a change as the general adoption of the six-hour day alone will remedy the situation.
- VI. That such a change need not mean loss to the worker is indicated by the fact that changes to shorter hours have resulted heretofore in higher pay and a better standard of living.

**509. Example of a Combined Topic and Sentence Outline****THE FRATERNITY PROBLEM AT -----**

- I. At present there are at -----
  - a. about 360 students in twelve fraternities,
    - 1. nine of them national, and
    - 2. three of them local ;
  - b. about 440 students in two dormitories,
    - 1. 260 in X Hall, and
    - 2. 180 in Y Hall ; and
  - c. about 150 students in private homes, either
    - 1. living with their families, or
    - 2. working for their lodging.
- II. The fraternities offer their members
  - a. the advantages of
    - 1. congenial companionship in small groups,
    - 2. comfortable living conditions, and
    - 3. opportunities for executive experience, at
  - b. the disadvantage of relatively high expense.
- III. The system is criticized by
  - a. the nonfraternity students, who charge that
    - 1. those chosen feel superior, and
    - 2. those not chosen feel inferior ; and by
  - b. the college authorities, who charge that
    - 1. the scholarship of fraternity men is inferior, and that
    - 2. rivalry between "frats" and "barbs" destroys united college loyalty.
- IV. A proposed solution is the building of dormitories
  - a. divided into sections, with separate clubrooms, dining-rooms, etc., and
  - b. grouped about a central kitchen, that can
    - 1. do baking, roasting, etc., for all, and thus
    - 2. supplement smaller kitchens in dormitories.
- V. Such a system would -----
  - a. offer the advantages of
    - 1. congenial living in small groups, and
    - 2. cheapness in the administration of kitchens, etc., and

- b. avoid the disadvantages of
  - 1. an undemocratic atmosphere in the college, and
  - 2. a divided student body.
- VI. The system seems feasible, for
  - a. the present dormitories can be remodeled,
  - b. the proposed Z Hall can be a unit in such a system, and
  - c. similar buildings can be hoped for from benefactors.
- VII. Our present policy should be
  - a. to deny permission for new fraternity chapters,
  - b. to organize clubs in Z Hall, and
  - c. to accustom fraternities to the idea of eventually
    - 1. giving up their charters, and
    - 2. becoming clubs.



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